

The Nation.

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The Week.

THE doubts which still lingered in the minds of the public as to whether General Grant would take the nomination if it were not offered unanimously and without a contest, were removed last week by an authoritative announcement through the *New York Times* that he would take it in any way he could get it, like the other candidates. This puts some of his supporters—the more delicate and high-minded—in an awkward position, but we have no doubt that to the bulk of the working boomsters it is very welcome. They never quite liked what they probably called the “dignity game.” It made General Grant seem too far removed from them—

“Too bright or good
For human nature's daily food.”

The Philadelphia *Bulletin*, a stalwart Grant paper, is much dissatisfied with our sketch of the way the Grant movement would work in practice, and thinks it “libellous.” It mentions as a fatal objection to the programme that the only “armed force” on which General Grant could rely to put him in the White House after he had done his own counting is the United States Army—a very small body. But the *Bulletin* is evidently not well informed, for another leading boomster paper, the Chicago *Inter-Ocean*, says in a recent issue that if “Grant is chosen *he will take the office*, and all talk of a conspiracy [to prevent him] will melt away under the influence of a man whose simple word would call to his side a half-million of veteran soldiers.” So that he will really, it seems, have a very large force at his command when he begins his count. The “boom” has been reinforced during the week by Mr. Henry Ward Beecher, who demands not only a third term, but five terms in all, thus leaving the other boomsters eight years in the rear. Mr. Beecher is evidently determined to make himself “generally useful,” as the advertisements say.

The *Tribune*, not wholly discouraged by the action of the Harrisburg Convention, is making an effort to discover the true sentiment of Pennsylvania, which seems, so far as the *Tribune's* test is of value, very decidedly anti-Grant and in favor of Blaine. The difficulty with ordinary newspaper attempts at popular political diagnosis is, as the *Tribune* very justly remarks, that the people applied to are wholly irresponsible, and represent no one but themselves. Accordingly in this instance each of the 2,600 local committeemen of the Republican party throughout the State was addressed by postal-card and asked for a brief statement of his preferences as to the Chicago nomination. To these the *Tribune* has so far received 1,051 replies, of which 812 are for Blaine, 188 for Grant, 14 for Sherman, and the rest scattering. Many of the writers are reckless enough to allow their names to be published, which was optional with them, from which it is fair to conclude they are tired of their “representative” positions, or else that they know that Senator Cameron does not read the *Tribune*. But before concluding with that journal that “Maine will be jealous of Pennsylvania presently,” we may as well bear in mind that it is a fortnight since the *Tribune's* postal cards were sent out, and that up to the present time no answers have been received from nearly two-thirds of the persons addressed, that comparatively few of the Grant men would be likely to reply, and that all of the Blaine men would.

Secretary Sherman has been busy throughout the week debasing the public service to further his own selfish plans over a pretty wide stretch of territory, we judge from the reports of the *New York Times*, which keeps him under the same strict surveillance that it

used to exercise over the similar movements of Mr. Tilden. It has discovered his hand in what it sarcastically alludes to as a “spontaneous” popular uprising of Boston merchants, and, in connection with that dissatisfied marplot, Secretary Schurz, in some ugly manipulations of the civil service in St. Louis. In this city he has compelled Surveyor Graham to attempt to decoy the business men into “spontaneous” support of him, while at the same time he has kept Collector Merritt away from his business at the Custom-house in order to “manufacture sentiment” in the northern part of the State. Of Ohio, singularly enough, unless he regards it as already “fixed,” he has been very neglectful. A meeting in his favor at Columbus Friday night was characterized by “utter absence of enthusiasm”; “frequent complaint of the lack of organization in his interest” is heard from his friends, and Governor Foster dejectedly observed to a *Times* correspondent, “Sherman is not working here at all,” adding that the fact was “unaccountable” to him, considering Sherman's skill and adroitness. As if all this were not enough, the *Times* brings forward that eminent patriot, ex-Senator Dorsey, of Arkansas, as a witness that even Little Rock is not outside the circle of the Secretary's malign influence, which, on the promise of future favors, is endeavoring to undermine the sturdy morality of Arkansas Treasury officers. Dorsey also contributes a bit of what he calls “secret history” to the effect that Sherman opposed the Resumption Act in caucus, and now wants to claim all the credit for it; he adds characteristically that “caucus proceedings are always secret, and each member of the caucus is bound in honor not to reveal them,” but that the infamy of Sherman's conduct has “unsealed his lips.”

There has been a good deal of curiosity of late to see whether Governor Cornell would nominate Smyth, the Insurance Superintendent, for another term, in view of the exposures made about him when he was tried by the Senate, and in view of his late attempted fraud in the holding of the Albany primary meetings. Mr. Cornell, it was thought, might feel some hesitation about it himself, but the question was, Would Senator Conkling allow him to refuse? The answer has come, for Smyth has been renominated, probably under orders from Washington. Nothing more discreditable has occurred in State administration for a good while, but all friends of good government ought to be glad of it. The more true to themselves, and their system, and their chief the Conklingites are, the sooner will the public's eyes be opened to the absurdity of electing these men on Mississippi and Louisiana issues. It gives a New York election the air of a “confidence game” in a fair. One operator reads horrid accounts of murders and outrages and piracy on the high seas to the crowd, with appropriate and harrowing comments, and, having thus absorbed their attention, his confederate “goes through” them and takes their valuables.

The Albany Republicans who were indignant with Smyth's attempt to cheat them at the primaries have refused to take part in the second election, because it was only held to fill the places of six delegates who were shamed into resigning, the tenure of the remaining majority being also tainted with fraud. The malcontents have held a meeting and issued an address, in which they denounce the General Committee savagely, but say that instead of sending up a second and contesting delegation to the Convention they will lay their griefs before it, and if they get no redress the Convention “must take the consequences.” We doubt if this promises much result. They will be heard with much courtesy, and will then be furnished with lists of Southern murders, and requested, in view of these horrors, to forget their wrongs for this once, and help the Machine to win a glorious victory in November. Privately, Mr. Conkling would call this “letting 'em squeal as much as they please, if they don't bolt.”

The Fitz-John Porter case has begun to excite so much party feeling in Congress that it is not likely that any bill giving effect to the President's recommendation for his relief will be passed this session. In the first place, the surviving members of the court-martial which convicted him—of whom the chief is General Garfield—feel that the finding of the Advisory Board casts a slur on them; in the second, it has become with many people one of the sacred legends of the war, which they cannot bear to have attacked or criticised, that Pope was betrayed by the McClellan set in the army. There was, however, so much fresh evidence produced before the Advisory Board, not simply in the shape of Confederate testimony and reports but of new and accurate surveys of the battlefield, that its finding really casts no reflection at all on the verdict of the court-martial. With the legend it is impossible to deal by any process of ratiocination, and the same thing may be said of the belief held by many that a Confederate Brigadier is sure to tell lies if examined even on oath with regard to the facts of the war. Nothing but time or death disposes of prejudices of this sort.

General Logan made a minority report against the bill in the Senate for himself and Mr. Plumb, in which he took the remarkable ground that the sentence of a court-martial is so final and absolute that neither the President nor any power on earth can set it aside or annul or undo it; from which it would seem to follow that if a court-martial were to sentence a man to be shot, and the clearest evidence of his innocence were afterwards produced, such as proof of an alibi or of mistaken identity, he would have to be shot all the same. General Burnside made a report for himself, in which he took the much more rational ground that as the Advisory Board was in no sense a legal tribunal, and the proceedings before it were to a certain extent *ex parte*, but nevertheless did produce new facts tending to show General Porter's innocence of which he ought to have the benefit, the proper course to be followed now is to authorize the President to convene a new court-martial and give General Porter a fresh trial upon the old charges and specifications. Another bill has been introduced in the Senate by Mr. Randolph authorizing the President to commission Porter as a colonel of infantry, the commission to be dated in 1863, with pay and emoluments from that date, and to put him on the retired list immediately afterwards. This is thought likely to meet the objections to the bill now pending.

We do not, as a rule, think it worth while to follow the *Chicago Tribune's* financial utterances; but we must call its attention to the fact that when it says legal tender paper in England "may be issued to an indefinite amount by a mere order of the Government," and that this is the way that "England provides against a scarcity of debt-paying paper," it does what the editor would call "telling a deliberate lie," but what in these parts is called committing a gross blunder. The Government has no power to order an issue of legal-tender paper to the smallest amount, or even to allow the Bank of England to issue one dollar beyond the amount of the Government debt to the bank—\$75,000,000—and the bullion it may have in its vaults. Moreover, bank-notes are only legal-tender as long as they are redeemable in coin. What the *Tribune* is lying or blundering about is the promise which, on two or three occasions in commercial crises, the Government has given the Bank, that if it did issue beyond the legal limit it would get an act of indemnity passed by Parliament. The *Tribune* ought to confine itself to the protection of down-trodden silver.

Early in the week the Treasury bought \$11,474,000 of United States bonds of 1881 for the sinking fund, and gave notice that hereafter it will buy \$1,000,000 on Wednesday of each week. These bonds are purchased with the surplus revenues of the Treasury, which, on account of the increase in foreign imports and the improvement in domestic trade, are steadily rising. The Committee of Ways and Means of the House have agreed to authorize the resumption of refunding, the new bond to run forty years, although

redeemable after twenty years, and to bear $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. annual interest. Since this decision was arrived at by the committee the market price of the 4 per cent. bonds has advanced to 107 $\frac{1}{2}$, a price which warrants the sale of $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. bonds at about par. It is, therefore, likely that within a few weeks refunding operations will again be in full blast. The expectation of this has advanced the prices of choice railroad investments, and has given a fresh start to general speculation at the Stock Exchange, the experience of last year being that while refunding will work in favor of an easy money market it will also turn a good deal of money now in United States 5 and 6 per cent. bonds into railroad securities. The foreign-exchange market has been firm, and rates for sterling bills are nearer to the point at which gold can be exported than that at which it can be imported. The price of silver bullion in London declined to 52 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per oz.; and here the "buzzard dollar" had a value at the close of the week of only \$0.8759.

The imperative need of a strong man at the head of the Government in order to restore to the South the peace and prosperity it enjoyed under the Grant régime is occasionally somewhat obscured by accounts published by the Southern press of flourishing industries and general progress. The *Charleston News and Courier* has recently been defiling the political graves of Moses, Scott, Chamberlain, and the rest, by implication at least, in giving its readers a statement of the present condition of the cotton manufacture of South Carolina, which, notwithstanding the pusillanimity of the Hayes Administration, is far better off to-day than it has ever been heretofore. There are now in the State seventeen factories engaged in the production of cotton yarns and cloths, with 95,438 spindles and 1,933 looms in operation. The daily consumption is 54,049 pounds of cotton, and the daily production 101,338 yards of cloth, and 17,183 pounds of yarn. They employ 2,296 operatives, who in turn support 7,913 persons. The monthly pay-rolls amount to over \$38,000; the capital employed is \$2,288,600, and their estimated worth \$2,844,000. The profits range from 18 to 25 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., one factory making 50 per cent. This, except in the percentage of profit, is not a showing which compares favorably with that of many New England towns to be sure, but it indicates the practicability of manufacturing on a large scale at the South, and the possibility of persuading the Southern people of it. It involves, of course, a saving in the cost of the raw material, in commissions, in transportation charges, and in waste; to which should be added the saving in the rental of land and in the wages of operatives.

The elections which are occurring here and there in England to seats accidentally made vacant by death or otherwise in what remains of the present Parliament, are watched with the greatest interest for the indications they give of the result of the general election which is to take place within the present year. That of Liverpool, which occurred recently, was not, for reasons which we gave last week, very valuable as a sign. Liverpool has always been a Conservative stronghold, and especially in exciting times. In 1868, after the passage of the Reform Bill and the increase of the constituency, the Tories carried it. In 1873 they carried it again at an off-election. In 1874, at the general election, they carried it by still heavier majorities. It was, therefore, not surprising that they won the vacant seat again the other day, now when the Jingoës are on their mettle, but they did not win it by a majority which gave much encouragement to either side as to the condition of public opinion. During the past year fifteen elections have been held, not counting the recent ones of Liverpool and Southwark, and in these the Liberals lost no seat and gained two, though that of Sheffield is considered a somewhat doubtful triumph. In Southwark, however, they have during the past week sustained an undoubted defeat in a place where they had no good reason to expect it, as Southwark has always been a strong Liberal constituency. It is true the Liberal forces were divided—the Workingmen running a candidate of their own, who drew off nearly nine hundred votes, with which the Liberal would have been almost on an equality with his opponent—but

the fact that the Workingmen did run a candidate must be taken of itself as a sign of Liberal weakness, or, at all events, as a sign that the Tories have not been losing ground lately even in a kind of constituency in which they have hitherto enjoyed little favor.

The distress in Ireland is reported to have abated, the measures of relief proving more than equal to the emergency. In fact the crisis has never been anything like as serious as that of 1847. The population, instead of being 8,000,000, as it was then, is only 5,000,000, and neither the potato nor any one article of food is as much relied on as it was then. Means of transport and communication of all kinds have also greatly increased, so that no district is as hard to get at as it was thirty years ago. The most picturesque and remarkable incident in the efforts to combat the famine has undoubtedly been the magnificent donation of the *New York Herald*, and the response it has called forth from other quarters, so that the fund already raised by this means amounts to over \$200,000. It has completely crushed poor Mr. Parnell, who doggedly refuses to take a place on the *Herald* Committee which that journal urges on him with remorseless persistence. His own collections, obtained by abuse of the landlords and of everybody who does not agree with him, must be very small.

There is no fresh news from Afghanistan, and no announcement from the Government as to what its policy is to be. Lord Beaconsfield has denied in Parliament that permission has been given to Persia to occupy Herat, but refuses to say that no such step is contemplated. The project clearly excites alarm among the more moderate supporters of the Ministry, because it is plain that if Persia is to take Herat she must be guaranteed the possession of it both against the Afghans and the Russians. That place has long been considered "the key of India," but it is now discovered that there is a key to Herat, a place called Mymeneh, in the Uzbek region, north of the great mountains, and there is little doubt that Mymeneh has a key too, and that the real outside key which opens the whole of Central Asia will not be found short of Moscow or St. Petersburg. Things in Herat are in a bad way. It is held by Mohammed Ayub Khan, the brother of Yakub, but his rule does not seem to amount to much, as his troops amuse themselves by fighting in the streets and pillaging the inhabitants. There is a curious article in the last *Nineteenth Century* by Sir Henry Rawlinson, the great Jingo prophet on Indian matters, whose predictions broke down so wofully about the Gundamuck Treaty. He says now that things have been going on beautifully, barring the murder of the envoy, but that Kabul must continue to be garrisoned by a force lodged in the re fortified Bala Hissar, leaving the chiefs to govern the country as best they can under British superintendence; Jalalabad and Kandahar must be retained, and Herat given to Persia, and finally, if Afghan-Turkestan is to be abandoned entirely "to the insatiable grasp of Russia, the Indian frontier will be as faulty as before," so that it appears it was by no means "rectified" when he last said it was, and probably never will be "rectified" as long as the Russians are in Central Asia. Sir Henry's recommendations have hitherto been followed very closely by the Beaconsfield Ministry.

Dr. Russell, the well-known correspondent, formerly of the *London Times* and lately of the *Telegraph* in South Africa, sent home some unpleasant accounts some time ago of the disorderly conduct of the British troops in that region. This excited the ire of Sir Garnet Wolseley, who does not like to believe a newspaper correspondent under any circumstances, and he pronounced them exaggerated and untruthful, and intimated that Dr. Russell had been made the victim of a hoax. This appears to have roused the latter, and he has appeared with a full bill of particulars in the *Telegraph*, giving a shocking picture of the indiscipline of the troops in the Transvaal, which Sir Garnet has taken possession of with some unnecessary violence of language, as conquered territory. The main cause of the disorder seems to be drink, but it must be added that experienced observers have already frequently pointed out the dif-

ficulty of keeping any troops well in hand which are employed as much as the British army is in burning and ravaging barbarians, whom they despise as "niggers." In fact, the infliction of tribal punishment—that is, visiting communities with fire and sword for the offences of individuals or chiefs, as we do in our treatment of the Indians and as the British have done in Africa and Afghanistan, brutalizes or demoralizes any army. No soldier who burns a village over the heads of women and children ever gets over it thoroughly.

The European press is filled with groans over Prince Bismarck's demand for an addition of 27,000 men and many batteries of artillery to the German army, to be taken from a class not now drawn on. Everybody is asking what this can mean, in the present trying condition of German finance and industry, and with one province—Silesia—actually desolated by famine. There is, of course, much speculation of a wild kind, but the prevailing opinion is that he is afraid of France and Russia, which, he thinks, have a strong tendency to combine, and would be really formidable if combined. France is recovering rapidly from the war, and will have next year a larger army than Germany, and Russia is smarting under internal troubles and the incompleteness of her victory over Turkey. All parties in the meantime talk peacefully, but there is a strong feeling in commercial circles that the mere existence of these armaments must tend to bring on a collision. The strain on the nerves of watching each other becomes after a while too much for military powers, and they rush at each other's throats so as to have an end of their fears. Germany will now call out 190,000 men every year, making her army under arms about 600,000 men, and about 1,500,000 with the reserves. France calls out every year about 168,000, and Russia 210,000. The Russian army is supposed to amount to 1,829,880 men; that of Germany and Austria combined to 2,500,000. The four great Powers, in fact, France, Germany, Austria, and Russia, have over 6,000,000 men under arms, and either wholly or partly withdrawn from industrial pursuits. The Russian press denies stoutly that it is Russia that Germany is afraid of, and insists that it must be France, while Baron Haymerle, the Austrian Minister, says he considers France the most peaceable country in Europe.

France in the meantime seems busy with the work of internal reorganization. The bill reorganizing the State Board of Education—the most interesting feature of which for foreigners is that it excludes the bishops and all clergymen who have hitherto had *ex officio* places on it—has passed the Senate after a severe struggle, in which the Due de Broglie made a speech, after a long retirement, in the character of a pious but despondent Catholic. The Minister of Public Instruction is to have the nomination of nine members of the Board, and it was proposed that he should be compelled to nominate clerical representatives of the various denominations, but the Government resisted this successfully. The other members are elected by various teaching bodies, and they may choose clergymen if they please, but clergymen are not to have seats *ex officio*. A bill regulating the right of public meeting is also under discussion, which makes meetings possible, on written notice to the police of time, place, and object, without formal permission; but periodical meetings in the same place are not to be permissible, as this would be a club in disguise, and French Conservatives dread clubs. These precautions against orators, absurd as they seem, are fairly justified by French history ever since the Revolution, because no French orator of the Radical school ever spouted long without recommending action, which always means some sort of appeal to physical force, either in the way of open insurrection or in the form of a big procession ready for insurrection. In fact, among the Radicals an orator who has no thought of fighting in his mind is looked on with a certain contempt. A remarkable feature in the debates, and instructive as an illustration of the spirit which the Monarchists bring into politics, was that the Right voted heavily against the Government with the extreme Radicals on the Public Meetings bill, of course with the view of discrediting the Republic.

GENERAL GRANT'S POLITICAL EDUCATION ABROAD.

WE spoke last week of the kind of rôle which the more ardent of General Grant's supporters had marked out for him, in saying that they desired to have him superintend and revise the counting of the electoral vote for his own benefit. Senator Cameron's reason, given just before the meeting of the Pennsylvania Convention, for wishing to re-elect him—that the people are “tired of the uncertainties of government”—would seem to indicate that they also already contemplate as probable and desirable those remoter results of their action which we set down last week as possible. That is, they seem really to demand a permanent, or nearly permanent, President, and have selected General Grant for the place, and prefer the plan of packing nominating conventions as a means of attaining their ends to the passage of a constitutional amendment.

The argument which they have used most effectively with those who do not share their dislike of the “uncertainties of government,” and are not attracted to General Grant by the prospect of his doing his own counting after the Presidential election, is, however, that the scandals which discredited his Administration during his two terms are not likely to recur, should he be elected again. He has, they say, learned so much during his tour abroad, both about politics and men, that he would certainly not be again betrayed into the indiscretions the remembrance of which constitutes with a large body of voters such a formidable objection to his candidacy. We have always thought it very unlikely that a man of peculiarly set character and by no means wanting in self-confidence, such as he is, should be convinced at the ripe age of fifty-seven by two years of foreign travel that he had acted under wrong motives and influences during his Presidency. His journey abroad was that of a sight-seer with extraordinary advantages. He stayed a few days or weeks in each place, looking at the curiosities and dining with the most distinguished people, all of whom treated him as a hero and poured out flattery on him without stint. That he bore himself under all this with exceeding modesty and good taste every one admits. But his tour was not a period of study and reflection, or deep observation of any kind. He was altogether rather less than three months in England and Scotland, and the time was passed in incessant fêting. In the remainder of the two years he accomplished a journey round the world, which took in Egypt, India, China, and Japan, so that it was on the face of things very unlikely that he saw or heard anything on his way calculated even to raise doubts in his mind as to whether his mode of administering the United States Government had been in any degree objectionable. He was enjoying the leisure and freedom from care, and the congratulations and compliments, to which the part he had played in the war fairly entitled him; but he was not studying institutions or comparing experiences with foreign statesmen. A full account of his trip has been published in a large and handsome volume by a sort of historiographer who accompanied him throughout, and we have looked through it in vain for any account of an attempt on General Grant's part to go below the surface of things or lay aside the character of a much-fêted guest in any country which he visited. There is no trace of his having given any time or attention whatever to an examination of the mechanism or principles of administration anywhere. From first to last he amused himself, as he had a good right to do, and almost resented any attempt on the part of his hosts to instruct him, or to show him anything on the ground that it was “in his line.”

The book does, however, contain one feature which gives it a good deal of interest just now as a “campaign document,” in the shape of reports of conversations between General Grant and the author on “questions connected with American politics and history.” These reports are the more valuable because it is expressly declared that they were not printed until they had been submitted to General Grant and had obtained the benefit of his revision. Many of them relate to the civil war, and to the character, capacity, and achievements of the various officers who served under and against him, and these are not only interesting and instructive, as the reminiscences of a great commander are apt to be, but are

characterized by all the magnanimous good sense, and the sound judgment of military capacity, which contributed so much to his military success by enabling him not only to put good men in responsible places, but to get from them their very best work. Some of his eulogies on his old comrades may sound extravagant, as when he places Sheridan as a soldier in the same category with Napoleon and Frederic; but a general who rates his lieutenants in this way is sure to have the highest order of co-operation always at his command, and to have the love as well as obedience of those who serve under him. In fact, one has only to read General Grant's talk about his fellow-soldiers, those of his own army as well as of those of the enemy's—such as Lee, Jackson, Longstreet, and Johnston—to see plainly enough where the source of his failure in civil administration lay. His strong feeling of *camaraderie* was in the Army displayed always towards a picked body of men, who had either risen into the sphere of his notice and influence by a severe process of selection in active service, or been known to him all through life as school-fellows at West Point. He ascribes, indeed, his success on several occasions, and notably at Fort Donelson, to his long and thorough acquaintance with the opposing generals in the old army. In trusting and standing by his military subordinates, therefore, he was dealing with a small class whose peculiarities he understood, and with whose motives of action he was familiar from his boyhood. He might, perhaps, have carried the same predisposition into the management of a highly-organized, severely disciplined, and permanent civil service like that of Prussia without doing any mischief, but when brought to bear on the very heterogeneous body who present themselves as candidates for offices, high and low, to an American President, the result could not help being what it was in General Grant's case. The “fire rule,” by which no man was to be dismissed or even investigated as long as public opinion assailed him, covered at last a considerable number of very unworthy, not to say disreputable, persons.

We find in his talk about those who served under him in civil life, even at the close of his trip when he was on his way home in the China seas, none of those signs of cleared perception or changed standards on which the Independents are now assured by the promoters of his “boom” that they may confidently count. Upon the question of civil-service reform he stands just where he stood when he nominated Shepherd for the chairmanship of the District of Columbia, and gave Butler the control of the Boston Custom-house and Conkling control of the New York Custom-house.

“Civil-service reform rests entirely with Congress. If members and senators will give up claiming patronage, that will be a step gained. But there is an immense amount of human nature in members of Congress, and it is in human nature to seek power and use it, and to help friends. An Executive must consider Congress. A Government machine must run, and an Executive depends on Congress. The members have their rights as well as himself. If he wants to get along with Congress, have the Government go smoothly, and secure wholesome legislation, he must be in sympathy with Congress. It has become the habit of Congressmen to share with the Executive in the responsibility of appointments. It is unjust to say that this habit is necessarily corrupt. It is simply a custom that has grown up, a fact that cannot be ignored. The President very rarely appoints, he merely registers the appointments of members of Congress. In a country as vast as ours the advice of Congressmen as to persons to be appointed is useful, and generally for the best interests of the country. The long continuance of the Republican party in power really assures us a civil-service reform.”

“Notwithstanding all that is said by the newspapers, I am convinced that our civil service, take it all and all throughout the country, is in as high a state of efficiency, and, I think, higher than that of any other nation in the world.”

It does not appear that while at home or abroad he ever made any examination of the civil service of any other country; so that this opinion is about as valuable as that of the late Senator Morton, who said ours was the “best civil service on this planet.”

“I can see,” he adds, “where our service can be amended. But every day the Republican party remains in power amends it. As to

competitive examinations, they are of questionable utility. One of the most brilliant candidates before the Civil-Service Board was in jail very soon after his appointment, for robbery. The way to achieve the best civil service is, first, to influence Congressmen and induce them to refrain from pressure upon the Executive; then pass laws giving each office a special tenure; then keep the Republican party in power until the process of education is complete. As it is now, the only danger I see to civil-service reform is in the triumph of the Democratic party."

The suggestion here that persons who pass well in examinations are likely to become robbers is very rich. There is, of course, a good deal of justice in the remark about Congressmen, but it is quite evident he does not think the President is called upon to take any pains to help in bringing Congress over to this desirable state of mind. Of Mr. Conkling he says he is "fond of him, and holds his great character and genius in profound respect." "No man is more trustworthy than Logan," most of whose protégés in office while he was in the Senate went to the penitentiary or fled to avoid prosecution.* Mr. Fish he places with the three other great statesmen of his age, Cavour, Gortchakoff, and Bismarck, which would be a very high compliment, and, even if extravagant, like his rating of Sheridan, not wholly unwarranted, if he did not soon after describe Butler as not only a man of great ability, but "a patriotic man, and a man of courage, honor, and sincere convictions."

In fact, of all the men he had to deal with in civil life, and to use for the high and low offices of state, the only one to whom he expresses a decided antipathy is Mr. Bristow, the Secretary of the Treasury who broke up the Whiskey Ring, brought some of its chief members to justice, and traced its ramifications to General Grant's confidential aide-de-camp, General Babcock. He does not make use of a single expression in these authorized conversations to show that he felt he had, during his eight years, made any mistake in the men he trusted, except in the case of Mr. Bristow, or that there had been anything wrong in his methods or policy. His allusions to Mr. Curtis and other reformers are either sneering or positively condemnatory. He insinuates in more than one place that these men are insincere, and once characterizes all persons belonging to what the Boston Simmons calls jeeringly the "better element" as "dangerous."

Now, whatever we may think of these views of public life and public men as those of a mere observer who has unusual opportunities of observing closely, we have absolute knowledge, in his case, of what they lead to in practice. We know what kind of machine a civil service is which is carried on under their influence, and which is handed over without let or hindrance to the control of members of Congress. We know what motives influence members of Congress in filling places in the public service with their protégés. We know what is the practical working of a standard which makes Butler "a man of courage, honor, and sincere convictions," which treats Belknap's disgraceful retirement from office as a cause of "regret"; which leaves Shepherd still fit for one high office after he has been legislated out of another for corruption; which ascribes to Mr. Conkling "great character and genius"; which sets Logan down as a good dispenser of patronage; which treats all who struggle to put public life on a higher plane, and raise the character and capacity of those who serve the state, and improve the conditions under which they serve it, as hypocritical Jeremiahs. Nor need we look for any strenuous effort towards reform from a President whose chief remedy for administrative abuses is to keep his own party in power indefinitely.

REMEDIES FOR IRISH DISTRESS.

THE recurrence of another famine in Ireland after an interval of over thirty years, and when the population has been diminished nearly one-half and the outlet for its products has been greatly in-

creased by improved means of communication, is causing a wider interest in the question of Irish poverty than was probably ever displayed before. The remedy which naturally first suggests itself to the American mind is emigration to this country. There is in this country a vast body of Irish who have by emigration permanently improved their own condition, besides adding to the resources of the United States. Let those who are suffering at home, and find that their own soil does not afford them a subsistence, come out here, it is said, where there is still room for ten times the population of Ireland to live in comfort, and the Irish problem, now two centuries old, will be completely solved. There are two answers to this. One is that no country in the world has tried emigration as a remedy for poverty and over-population so thoroughly as Ireland. During the eighteenth century there was a steady drain of enterprising young men into the French military service so great that the archives of the French War Department show that between 1689 and the French Revolution 200,000 Irishmen perished on French battle-fields—an enormous contingent of the bone and sinew of the people, considering that in Swift's day the race from which these recruits were drawn did not number over 800,000. Since the beginning of this century there has been a steady and, down to 1860, growing tide of Irish emigration to England and this country. There were in the United States at the last census close on 2,000,000 persons of Irish birth. The emigration from Ireland to all parts of the world between the years 1851 and 1878 was 2,500,000, or nearly one-third of the population of 1847.

In the second place, it is useless to talk of emigration as a means of effecting a radical change in the condition of the Irish population who remain at home, and it is with this that both philanthropy and legislation have to occupy themselves. About the fortunes of those who leave Ireland there is and need be no concern. In fact, we may safely go further than this, and say that the emigration of the last fifty years has been positively detrimental to the Irish in Ireland. Every community owes a large part of its progress and prosperity to the presence and activity of its most industrious, pushing, and energetic members, and these are the ones which every community in each generation loses by emigration. It is these that Ireland has been losing since 1851. Their departure, so far from helping to raise the standard of living among those who remain behind, either leaves it unaffected, or tends to lower it, and their places are apt to be filled rapidly by a less bold and enterprising breed. At this moment it would appear that in spite of all the emigration the standard of living among those who have remained at home has not been materially raised, and they are still dependent on the success of each crop for protection against absolute famine.

The remedy of emigration having proved unavailing, the question of a change in the tenure of the land by which the whole people may be said to live, has assumed greater interest and importance than ever. The *grande culture* does not grow up in Ireland; large farms are rare and do not increase in number. The *petite culture* is the rule—the great bulk of Irish farms are under thirty acres—but it does not succeed. Agriculture in nearly every branch is still in a very poor condition. Thirty years ago, after the last famine, it was thought that the burdened condition of a large number of the estates, a legacy of the fast living of the eighteenth century, preventing the landlords from making improvements and forcing them to exact high rents, was the chief cause of Irish poverty. The Encumbered Estates Court was therefore established, in which any estate could be sold, in spite of settlements, on the petition either of the owner or his creditors, and in parcels to suit purchasers. A very large quantity of land—one-fourth of the island, it is said—has been thrown into the market in this way, and it was hoped that it would be purchased to a considerable extent either by tenant-farmers or by capitalists who could afford to improve their property and deal liberally with their tenants. These expectations have likewise been disappointed. The purchasers have been mostly sharp attorneys, money-lenders, or small shop-keepers in search of a good investment, and

* We may as well give the exact language of the Stalwart Chicago Tribune, which said of Logan, at the time of his last election to the Senate, a year ago: "He was opposed to all reforms in government; he was the embodiment of the worst phase of machine politics, and helped to bring scandal and reproach upon Grant's Administration; a majority of his appointments turned out to be corrupt and faithless; a number were indicted, some fled the country, others escaped through flaws in the law, many passed under a cloud, and some, who are out on bail, have yet to be tried."

ready for any amount of rack-renting that would bring them in a high rate of interest, but without a particle of the feudal interest in the inhabitants of the property which the old class of landlords, in spite of their extravagance and thriftlessness, could hardly help taking to a greater or less degree.

This having failed, Mr. Gladstone's Land Tenure Act was tried. This secured the tenant compensation under certain conditions for his improvements in case of arbitrary eviction; but it did not give him security against eviction, or against the raising of his rent. It provided that when estates were sold by the Encumbered Estates Court a preference should be given to the tenants if they were ready to buy, but only if they were *all* ready to buy, and were ready to give as much for the whole estate as any outsider, a contingency which, of course, rarely happened. So that in point of fact the condition of the Irish tenant-farmers, though better than it used to be, has not been radically improved by any recent legislation. There are at this moment 500,000 of them, representing probably 3,000,000 of population, who hold as tenants at will, and they are not, as in England, the tenants of landlords to whom they are bound by ties of blood, religion, and old association, but for the most part of landlords from whom they are separated by the most serious differences by which a community can be divided. Public sentiment, both in England and Ireland, therefore seems to be coming rapidly to the conclusion that some strong effort, and on a great scale, must now be made to increase gradually the number of peasant proprietors, and see whether the "magic of property" will not produce the extraordinary effect on the small farmer in Ireland which it has produced on him in France and Belgium and the Channel Islands. It is said of the French and Belgian small farmer that he is not scientific or neat, and does not produce as much per acre as the large farmer in England; but it is not said, and it cannot be said, that he is unhappy or discontented or improvident, or is ever threatened with famine.

There are two ways of bringing about this result. Mr. Parnell has made himself the advocate of one, which is by rousing a furious, vindictive, and communistic spirit among the tenants and treating the landlords as public enemies, to frighten Parliament into buying the latter out wholesale and handing the land over to the tenants on easy terms, in fee simple, with a Government lien on the land for the amount of the purchase money. There is to this, however, the objection that any change in the ownership of landed property effected through the rousing of fierce anti-social passions and class hatreds would inevitably give a severe blow to the security of all property, and cause capital to avoid a country on which such a curse had descended; that, moreover, when the Government became at one stroke everybody's landlord it would be impossible for it to avoid incurring the animosity under which the landlords were expropriated, and at the same time it could not claim for its rights the traditional sanctity which surrounds those of private owners. Combinations to resist payment of its claims would in troublous times become a favorite political enterprise, and if it asserted them by force it would have land on its hands which nobody would occupy, and for which, like Cromwell, it would have to import tenants from England or Scotland.

Mr. Bright, in a recent speech, supported a wiser and more enlightened scheme, the working of which would be gradual, which would assail no rights of property, and owe neither its inception nor success to class hatred. It consists, in brief, of the establishment of a Government Commission armed with powers and funds to buy such estates as come into the market, either through the will or misfortunes of their owners, and resell them on easy terms to the occupying tenants. This would make the number of Government debtors at any one time or place comparatively small, and the work of collecting its dues comparatively easy. The plan has been tried to a limited extent with great success by the Commission which was charged with the disposition of the Irish Church temporalities. They sold land largely to occupying tenants, and the default in the payment of their dues, even during this year of distress, has only amounted to about three and a half per cent.

There is no country in Europe to-day in which a greater respon-

sibility is incurred than in Ireland by the man who advocates or instigates revolutionary or violent modes of settling social or political problems. Irishmen in Ireland have been educated by the atrocious circumstances of their history into a fatal distrust of the law, and into the disposition to turbulence which long distrust of the law always generates. The experience of Pennsylvania in the matter of the Mollie Maguires furnishes a fair illustration of the baleful tendency to engage in anti-social organizations which the average Irish peasant carries with him everywhere. To attempt to use this tendency for purposes of either political or social reform is absurd as well as detestable.

SOME OF THE REASONS WHY SO FEW STUDENTS ATTEND THE AGRICULTURAL SCHOOLS.

ATTENTION has often been called to the small results obtained at the agricultural colleges founded under the Act of Congress of 1862; but, in so far as we have noticed, little heed has been given to the causes why so few young men devote themselves to agricultural study. There are, in fact, many reasons why the farmers make so little use of the schools of agriculture, some of which apply particularly to one or another locality or latitude, though most of them are common to all places where land is cultivated. It is not from any lack in the community of opinions or of convictions as to the methods to be pursued in teaching it, that the diffusion of agricultural knowledge is so slow. Indeed, it is a noteworthy fact that there are few subjects about which so many men are ready and anxious to give advice as upon the methods by which agriculture should be taught. The interest evinced in the matter by persons of the most varied callings and degrees of culture would be cause for great encouragement to the faculty of an agricultural school if there were any experience to show that the spirit of work lay behind it, or indeed that it amounted to anything more than empty words. It is plainly evident that much of the current advice to teachers cannot be spoken of as founded upon abundant knowledge. Not a little of it seems to be based upon that vague longing for country life which is apt to come home at times to most residents of towns and cities here in America, as it could hardly fail to come to people of English blood so recently descended, as many of us are, from cultivators of the land.

But, whatever may be thought of it in other respects, there can be little doubt that this attitude of advice stands in the way of action. A school needs students first of all. If good students are sent to it the chances are that it will do them good service. Advice and criticism of its methods may come later; but material, and good material, to work upon is a prime necessity of the case. A school, like any other organism, grows by what it feeds on. It is a good old agricultural maxim that "silken purse cannot be made from sow's ear." In one word, it may be said that the best way to study agriculture is to study it. It is a natural inference that the intelligent parent will choose for his son the place of study which has the best reputation and the soundest traditions.

Foremost of all, perhaps, among the influences adverse to the agricultural school is the widespread conviction that farming is a business that can only be learned by long-continued labor at the farm, and that any interruption of such labor is likely to spoil the lad. There is a constant drain of active and vigorous young men from the farms toward the cities, and common experience teaches that while the boys who are kept at work at home sometimes become farmers, those who are permitted to leave the homestead are apt to be lost to agriculture. Hence the not unnatural fear that systematic study at an agricultural school will but lead the young man to adopt some other calling and carry him no one knows whither. The fear that the boy may be diverted from the farm is curiously complicated with a spirit of self-conceit and narrowness which makes the parent doubt whether his son would really be taught much of anything useful if he were sent to the agricultural school. The very fact that he possesses so much natural shrewdness and sagacity and good judgment, in respect to the affairs of daily life, tends to give the American farmer an unreasonable confidence in his own opinion. It makes him over-confident upon subjects which are quite beyond his scope, and indifferent to or even disdainful of scientific knowledge. He sees so many men of his own class rise to prominence, or the semblance of it, with no other education than that of the newspaper or the printing-house, that he is apt to doubt the merit of systematic training.

But besides the doubt whether the lad would learn, and the fear that he may never return to the farm, there is the well-nigh universal difficulty of want of pecuniary means. Our yeomanry are for the most part

too poor to provide an agricultural education for their children. They can neither afford to spare hands that are useful on the farm, nor have they the ready money wherewith to provide board and clothing for the college student. The plan adopted at several agricultural schools, of paying the students for work done upon the college farm, is a clumsy and expensive attempt to meet this patent difficulty. It is hard to say what would be the best method of encouraging worthy lads, from the poorest of the sandy and hilly districts of New England, for example, to study agriculture. Provision has already been made at several of the schools for the remission of tuition-fees in such cases, but the difficulty with respect to food, fuel, books, and clothing remains, and has never been satisfactorily met. Perhaps a somewhat liberal system of scholarships, —or, rather, of direct gifts of money—to be allotted in the final years of schooling to students who have proved themselves worthy of such aid by their success in the first year's studies, would be a help. There are happily not a few country places where a really able lad of good character could borrow money enough to support him for a year at school, if there were a fair prospect that he could gain enough in the years immediately succeeding not only to sustain himself but to repay a part at least of the debt. There can be no question that situations could be found after graduation for young men thus educated and not afraid of farm-work. The only trouble is that these situations would generally be less remunerative than those obtainable by men of similar age who have been equally well educated in other departments—that is to say, for a given amount of time spent in study, and of pecuniary sacrifice made for the sake of the study, more money can usually be gained in the years immediately succeeding graduation by the students of other branches than agriculture. For the agricultural graduate, moreover, there is little chance for prizes, whether of position or of emolument, such as may be hoped for in most professions.

But while in the older States many of the farmers are too poor to think of giving their sons an agricultural education, and lack of capital deters from all agricultural enterprise, there are some sections of the country where the farmers are too well off to care for any man's teachings. There is small hope of getting many graduates in agricultural science from those Western districts where climate, fertility, cheap land, and easy tillage conspire to make farming a mere matter of the management of gang-ploughs, headers, and steam threshing-machines. The mere fact of the existence of cheap land at the West is of itself a well-nigh fatal impediment to the agricultural schools. To many minds it seems little short of absurd that a strong, healthy lad should give time to study, or that he should even remain in the older States, when a few years of faithful labor at the frontier will ensure to him independence and a thorough knowledge of the art of farming as practised in his place of settlement. It is clear, however, that there cannot always be open lands at the West, to be had almost for the trouble of taking; and that, consequently, there must soon come a time when the motive for emigrating from the East will be much feebler than it has been hitherto. There can be no doubt that the agricultural schools will profit when the tide of emigration slackens and the country begins to settle down upon a more natural basis of living than the one to which we are now accustomed. Meanwhile, however, it would seem to be plain that there must be somewhere, between the Californian grain-lands and the New Hampshire pastures, a class of farmers so situated that they can appreciate agricultural science, and can afford to have their sons study it. It is precisely this conviction which inspires and at the same time exasperates the agricultural teacher. He knows that some day this class of students must frequent the agricultural schools, and his hopes and fears alternate as he speculates whether the day will be reached during his own lifetime. Assuredly it will be a great gain for the Republic when the spirit of these well-to-do but easy-going and too quiescent farmers is stirred within them, and they are impelled to take action in their own behalf.

While the bone and sinew of agricultural schools must always come from the farming population proper, there is another class of men to which these schools appeal, and from which they should certainly derive a fair share of support. There is in this country an incessant though slow and feeble reversion from city to country life. A few capitalists retire from business to farms, and a good many sons of capitalists are established upon farms by their parents. These young men ought, of course, to obtain the best agricultural education within their reach, and many of them are conscious that it is their duty so to do. But they commonly labor under the disadvantage that they are unfamiliar with rural affairs. They are consequently compelled to spend a comparatively long apprenticeship upon farms, in order to become acquainted with a mass of practical

details, such as are familiar to the country boy almost from his birth, but which cannot well be learned at the schools. Devotion such as this, at the beginning of adult life, to the merely practical side of the business not only brings that side into undue prominence, but is apt to fix the man in rather narrow ruts; and it is commonly found indeed, when these terms of pupilage have expired, that a good many traders of horses and of fancy cattle have been produced, but comparatively few farmers, in the proper sense of the word.

No doubt much good has been done everywhere throughout the country by these city-bred farmers through the introduction of improved stock and new appliances, and by the employment of better methods of dairying, or the like, than were known to their neighborhoods before. But in all probability one might search in vain among them for examples of the best possible farming which their several localities would permit. If the best of these men had but given zealously during two or three years their winters to the agricultural school and their summers to the apprenticeship at the farm, they would have gained an ampler store of the knowledge which is power, and their aims and works would have been correspondingly high and important. Example is a force of paramount importance in agriculture, and it is but natural to look to the farmers in easy circumstances for model practices. As Sir Humphry Davy said long ago: "It is from the higher classes of the community, from those who are fitted by their education to form enlightened plans, and by their fortunes to carry such plans into execution—it is from these that the principles of improvement must flow to the laboring classes."

Correspondence.

THE AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT OF BOSTON UNIVERSITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It affords me pleasure to relieve your uncertainty, and to assure you that the Massachusetts Agricultural College has been and is open to women who are matriculates in Boston University. Our commonwealth is not so far behind your own Empire State as you seem to suggest.

With high respect, yours cordially,

WM. F. WARREN.

PRESIDENT'S OFFICE, BOSTON UNIVERSITY,
BOSTON, February 10, 1880.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Why be so severe on Boston University for including the Agricultural College in its departments? Harvard for several years included among its advertised "departments" the Episcopal Theological School, which had no more to do with it than has the Agricultural College with Boston University; and the list of students in the Episcopal Theological School still figures in the Harvard catalogue. All colleges like to glorify themselves by numbers.

T. S.

BOSTON, February 8, 1880.

HARVARD DIVINITY SCHOOL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the letter of your correspondent "X.," published in your issue of the 12th inst., I find several statements referring to the Harvard Divinity School, some of which call for explanation and some for denial. The confident tone of the letter indicates the familiarity of the writer with the details of the life of the Divinity School, hence are the mistakes more dangerous. I do not wish to discuss the question of the possibility of "unsectarian" theological instruction; that has been done by abler pens than mine; I wish only to correct the very misleading statements of your correspondent.

The letter opens with "a most emphatic denial" of the assertion that the school "stands for free enquiry in the field of theology." We are told "neither in the school nor out of it is this felt to be the fact. This freedom is not felt by the students, either in the choice of studies or in the pursuit of those selected for them." The two statements in the last sentence must be answered separately. First, with regard to freedom in the choice of studies. For lack of means the courses in the school are not sufficiently numerous to admit of choice, there are only enough to occupy a man's time; the proposed fund of \$120,000, which the *Nation* has felt it to be its duty so persistently to oppose, is designed to remove, amongst others, this very difficulty. As soon as the funds permit more courses of

study, choice will become possible and will be permitted. But besides this, the assertion of your correspondent is not strictly accurate: several students have been permitted to substitute other Old Testament studies for the Hebrew language, on account of physical inability to pursue it.

Secondly, with regard to the statement that, in the pursuit of those studies selected for them, the students do not feel free, any one who is at all familiar with the school will instantly reply that if they do not, it is entirely their own fault. But they certainly do; *absolute freedom of enquiry and speech* is everywhere permitted. We have men of all shades of belief, from the most radical to orthodox, and in the lecture-room, at conference and debate, at the regular religious services, each one speaks with perfect freedom. At every conference the most varying opinions are freely pronounced and discussed. This double assertion of your correspondent is therefore, incorrect.

Again: we are told that "to train young men for any church is to train them for no church." This is one of those peculiar sentences that sound axiomatic but mean nothing; it is, perhaps, not necessary in this case to point out its absurdity.

Again: "Instead of a fair and candid study of the book (the Old Testament) as illustrated in the works of the Dutch school, a system of repression was and may now be in vogue." Justice to Prof. Young demands a denial of this statement also. Although Prof. Young himself holds what are considered conservative views—views not accepted, perhaps, by a majority of the students—he invariably presents the opinions of the Leyden school, stating at the same time his reasons for dissenting from them. I have heard him say again and again: "I have given you the reasons and the authorities for my own views; these are the views of Kuenen and Oort; it is for you to consider both sides and decide for yourselves." Thus your correspondent is again mistaken.

The next statement is a most remarkable one: "As to who or what Jesus was or is, nobody in the school seems to have any idea." A more unjustifiable or ridiculous statement would be difficult to make. Prof. Ezra Abbot, to whose department the question mostly belongs, has very definite views on the subject, and takes every opportunity of expressing them to the students. I have heard him express himself freely at least fifty times. Prof. Everett, in the course of lectures on "Systematic Theology" which he is delivering to the Senior Class, has not yet reached the subject, but will certainly not hesitate to express very definite views when the time comes. It is, moreover, very easy to find his position from his published sermons on the subject. As before intimated, the students express their own views on this question with complete freedom. The rash positive statement of "X." is, therefore, utterly incomprehensible to me.

But your correspondent reserves his most tremendous assertion till the last. I must be excused for quoting it entire: "At present the school uses the scholarships as a means of repressing the free thought and expression of the students. (The writer does not modify this statement.) Students who go to Harvard with the idea that there are scholarships and freedom soon find out their mistake, and, to the detriment of their manhood, keep quiet."

Before characterizing these statements let us examine them. The facts in the case are that, with one exception, the scholarships are given absolutely *without conditions*. (That is, only the very moderate requirement is made—to which even "X." probably would not object—that the recipients shall be of good moral character, etc.) The exception is the Williams Fund, which specifies that its incumbents must be studying for the Protestant Christian ministry. There are no sectarian conditions. This fund is administered by a society having no connection with the University. Now, sir, the assertion that the school "uses the scholarships as a means of repressing" freedom of thought and enquiry is absolutely false. I have been connected with the school for four years, and have known intimately men of all beliefs who have received aid (I may state that I am not a recipient of any scholarship, and cannot, therefore, be charged with coming to my own rescue), and I have never heard the slightest suggestion that would bear out your correspondent's statement. I know that the Faculty makes aid in no way dependent on belief. The wholesale insult to the students, in the last sentence quoted, is contemptible. Strong language is needed with regard to these assertions in such widely-circulating columns. If they be not made from gross ignorance they are simply falsehoods.

I feel sure, sir, that you will wish to give to this reply the same publicity as to the attack of "X." I regret to have taken so much of your valuable space. When, however, such crude and exaggerated assertions are publicly made with such an air of information, the reputation of the

Divinity School, the honor of the professors, and the manliness of the students all unite in calling for a prompt and vigorous denial.

A MEMBER OF THE DIVINITY SCHOOL.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., February 16, 1880.

CARE FOR RAILROAD EMPLOYEES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Enclosed I send you a communication I have recently received from a gentleman in immediate charge of a Western railroad. I do not know how I can bring the matter more directly to the attention of those who alone can give effect to the plan suggested—I mean the Eastern owners of these properties—than through your columns. That in itself the plan is not only perfectly practicable, but one dictated by the soundest considerations of pecuniary interest, I have no doubt. The employees of the Western railroads should be made at any reasonable cost the close allies of the owners. That by a little foresight and even less money outlay they could be so made I know perfectly well. As a rule, however, the absentee managements of the Western roads are on these points singularly short-sighted, not to say selfish. I have only to add that this letter, though written without a thought of publication (for which reason I withhold the writer's name), comes from one of the most capable and business-like, as well as liberal-minded, of the men it has been my fortune to meet in railroad circles. I very strongly commend it to the thoughtful consideration of such of your readers as may also be directors of railroad properties in the West.—I am, etc.,

CHARLES F. ADAMS, JR.

Boston, Feb. 2, 1880.

JANUARY 23, 1880.

MY DEAR SIR: I have thought that possibly you might be interested in a subject which has frequently impressed itself upon me in the last ten years, the importance of which, however, has become more apparent to me in the last year, during which I have been brought nearer to the matter.

It will pay the owners of Western railroads to give more attention to the personal welfare of those of their employees whose vocation lies in the lower walks of the profession—their machinists, engineers, firemen, conductors, brakemen, telegraph operators, and clerks in the various offices; the train-service employees perhaps more than others.

There is no business or profession where the interests of the employer and employed should be more closely identified. There is none where this is less the case than is to be found on most of our Western roads. The life is one full of continued excitements. Sudden and repeated calls are made for great efforts. The strain on the nervous system is severe and excessive. Even under the best circumstances the wear and tear will use up the most vigorous man in a shorter time than in any other business. We need for the work men sound in mind and body, and we ought to give them every reasonable opportunity and advantage for leading such a life as will keep them in sound condition.

Where railroads are directly under the control and supervision of the owner or owners this is understood, and to some extent, I believe, action has been taken. Out West, where we have the Grange element to contend with, and a middle class who rise to political power through the injustice and prejudices of the Grange element, we especially need the moral support and political help of our men in all contests against corporations. We do not get this support by merely paying the daily wages earned.

Apart from these considerations there are reasons founded on humanity and morality which it is perhaps unwise to advance, as the only arguments which in this day seem to have any force are those founded on the doctrine that "it will pay." Speaking, therefore, from that standpoint alone, I venture to say that if the Boston owners of railroads in the West would give some attention to advancing the personal welfare of those of their employees of the laboring class it would pay them quickly and handsomely.

You may say that that is a question which lies chiefly with the local management. I answer that is true only in theory; for the course of a management is shaped by the spirit which animates and proceeds from the board of owners, and where the success of a management is measured by large immediate net earnings alone, very little time or thought will be given to the considerations I have suggested.

You may ask what I mean by "advancing the personal welfare of employees." I mean a consideration of the welfare of the men *beyond their working hours and outside of their duties for which they are paid.*

I mean the adoption of systems for helping the men in their private lives, *all of which can be accomplished at a trifling outlay.*

In order to make myself clear I shall speak somewhat in detail of one system against which more can be said than against other systems relating to questions of promotion, life-insurance, care of wounded and sick, providing rooms for rest and reading at division-stations, etc., etc. The system of which I would speak is one for assisting employees in securing homes. Place aside a fund to be loaned at four per cent. per annum. Loans to be made only for the purpose of erecting homes. Only to men who have done three or more years of meritorious service and from the various departments of the service. No loan to exceed \$1,000, and no time to be in excess of five years. The borrower must have saved one-third of the cost of the homestead, so that the loan, secured by first mortgage on the homestead, shall not be in excess of two-thirds of its actual cost. The loan to be made solely as a reward for past service, the borrower to be under no obligation for future service, but simply bound to repay the money in accordance with the terms of the mortgage. A fund of \$100,000 in ten years would enable three hundred or more men to secure homes; for as fast as the principal was repaid in instalments by the first batch of borrowers it could be loaned to first applicants in a second batch, and so on. This is no expenditure of money, but is simply transferring a certain sum of, say, \$100,000 from the "call loan" fund at two or three per cent. to a "Special Employee Loan" fund at four per cent.

As I have said before, objections can be made against such a plan, as indeed objections can be and generally are raised against any innovation of established customs; but in a small way, and to retain and interest men whom I wanted to keep, I have personally made several such loans in the past three years, and now have about \$10,000 loaned out to thirteen men on the terms and under the conditions briefly outlined above, and can speak with certainty of the good which has arisen to both sides, and I have felt but one drawback—that I have not been able to lend to a hundred others.

A railroad man who makes suggestions of this character from the Western end of the line renders himself liable to have his ideas ranked as "utopian," "visionary," etc. I have, however, been through the mill myself, and believe that a little attention to these matters would give our owners a more zealous and earnest service, would foster and encourage a high *esprit de corps*, would breed a strong attachment to the line and its owner, would remove the possibility of strikes and riots, and would lead to the securing of a better grade of men. All this means increased efficiency and increased net earnings; and it can be secured at small cost and with little trouble to the local management.

I may never be able to get any one who has the power to put into execution such plans to agree with me as to the desirability of doing so; but, like the ambassador in James's "De Lunatico," I shall continue to believe that I am not the crazy fellow because the majority differ with me. If you would interest yourself in the matter, you could give a strong helping hand.

Yours truly,

* * *

C. F. ADAMS, JR., Esq., Boston.

THE INDEPENDENT VOTER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There are hosts of people outside of New York watching the movements and progress of the Independent Republicans, or "Scratchers," with interest and hope; for, to men who think on political subjects without partisan bias, it has become painfully certain that the country has nothing to hope from either of the great political parties, and much to fear from both of them, as they are now organized and led. Until some change comes we must look for safety in the future to the "independent voter." To persons to whom a party name is dear this will seem extravagant language. Let us see if it is justified by facts.

There are before the nation many important questions in which its future well-being is deeply involved, and which demand immediate solution, and yet are neglected and avoided by both parties—or, to say the least, neither party will commit itself, continually and unreservedly, in power and out of power, to either side of them. Perhaps the most ominous fact about this state of things is that it is perfectly understood and admitted that neither statesmanship nor patriotism has anything to do with it; that it is simply the result of a struggle for place and power, promoted by party leaders, who thus use the nation for the advancement of selfish ends.

That we may not seem to deal in loose and general accusations, let us specify two or three of these questions:

1. The currency. Nearly all men who are practically acquainted with the requirements of business, or who have studied the subject in the light of history, and at the same time are neither speculators nor office-seekers nor partisans, concur in the opinion that the future safety of the country requires that its currency should be placed at once beyond the danger of being swept, by a change of the balance of trade or other cause, from the solid basis where alone, as we are taught by the experience of all the past and the consent of all mercantile nations in the present, it can safely rest. And yet neither party will commit itself to the attainment of this end.

2. Civil-service reform. All parties out of power insist upon its vital importance and pledge themselves to it. In 1876 the Republicans made it the most prominent article of their creed. In fact, in view of the scandals of the preceding four years, had they failed to do so, there was little hope that the people would trust them again with the power they had abused. All honor to President Hayes and his Administration for what has been done towards the redemption of the pledge then given! But how far the party is true to it may be seen in the fact that at this moment its most prominent candidate for the Presidential nomination is the man whose last Administration has the unenviable distinction of furnishing three Cabinet officers generally believed to be guilty of peculation in office, and of being, on the whole, the most corrupt the country ever saw; and, further, that two out of the three next after General Grant the most prominent have opposed the Administration of President Hayes in every attempt at reform, if it interfered with patronage. As for the Democratic party, it is enough to say that fifty years ago, under its great leaders, it utterly debauched the civil service of the country, till that time pure, and that, out of power or in power, it has never since done anything to repair the mischief then done.

3. Counting the votes for President. In 1876 we were brought dangerously near to civil war by the disagreement of the two parties as to the manner in which the result of the Presidential election was to be ascertained. The appointment of the Electoral Commission saved us for that time. No one supposes that experiment can be repeated. We are rapidly approaching again the same danger, and that under circumstances which greatly intensify it. Thoughtful men are oppressed by the prospect, and earnestly desire that our lawgivers should take measures for our safety before the excitement growing out of a pending election or of partially-ascertained results shall render agreement upon any plan impossible. But nothing is done. Each party seems afraid to propose, still more to agree to, anything, lest in its application it shall tend to defeat party ends.

These specifications might be extended, but it is needless. It is often said that this devotion to party and selfish ends, although to be regretted, is not dangerous to the country—that it has existed from the foundation of the Government, and yet at the end of a hundred years the nation is safe. The answer is obvious. In the past, parties divided upon great questions of statesmanship and public policy, and fidelity to one side or the other of these questions was the party test. The success of a party was the success of a principle. It is not so now, and hence our danger. Upon what one important question of national policy are the parties divided by lines so distinct that we can say this is a Democratic or that a Republican measure? Each party devotes itself to showing how dangerous would be the ascendancy of the other, and to efforts to get the other "on record" in some way which will show its dangerous tendencies. This state of things cannot long continue. The great mass of voters, while vitally interested in having a good government, have no interest in the success of either party, as parties are now constituted. They are neither office-holders, office-seekers, nor contractors. To many, doubtless—to most, perhaps—the party name will continue to be all sufficient for some time to come. But not so with men who have the capacity and will take the trouble to think.

How to get and keep a good government—how to avoid the tyranny of rulers, civil and ecclesiastical, on the one hand, and the tyranny of the mob on the other—has been the "conflict of the ages." Only the careful student of history knows what the conflict has cost. Our Government is far from perfect, but its attainment has cost those who went before us a great price, and for the present we know nothing better; so its preservation seems to call on us for careful consideration, persistent effort, and self-sacrifice. Those of us who were old enough thirty or more years ago to participate in political affairs remember that no successful opposition to the aggressions of the slave-power could be made so long as we re-

mained in the old party organizations. Now, as then, if we will be useful citizens, we must be content, if circumstances require it, to be come-outers.

J. C. D.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., Feb. 2, 1880.

Notes.

A HISTORY of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad was published in 1853, and now we have a handsome volume, privately printed (and printed on laid paper at the Chiswick Press, London), a 'Bibliography' of the same company, from 1827 to 1879, compiled by Mr. John W. M. Lee. It embraces, including the publications relating to the branch roads, 644 numbers, most of which are prosaic enough, and attractive only to specialists, statisticians, or the legal profession. But in 1828 we notice "The Railroad, a Characteristic Divertimento for the Piano Forte" (No. 17), and Nos. 28, 307, and 516 are out of the common. Some famous names, like Wm. Wirt, J. P. Kennedy, Reverdy Johnson, and Henry Winter Davis, give a literary, or at least intellectual, flavor to the catalogue; and both as concerning the oldest passenger railroad in the United States, and that with whose prosperity the great foundation of the Johns Hopkins University is so intimately connected, this 'Bibliography' seems to justify the pains spent upon it.—The same may be said of the 'Memorial of Caleb Cushing,' published at the expense of the City of Newburyport, Mass., and for sale by A. Williams & Co., Boston. The tributes of funeral orators, historical societies, of bench and bar, suggest without solving the question why Mr. Cushing was not the first man in Massachusetts during his lifetime; though as regards his early defective oratory there is a significant passage on p. 154, in the memorial of the Essex Bar Association, than which there is nothing more critical in the book. A fine portrait in carbon photography serves as frontispiece.—The second volume of *Le Musée Artistique et Littéraire* (J. W. Bouton), the "annex" of *L'Art*, to use the phrase of the day, contains articles on Cham, Viollet-le-Duc, Hogarth, Poussin, and other masters, and the usual profuse assortment of illustrations in all the branches of art. Some of the American paintings at the Exposition are here reproduced, including Mr. Vedder's 'Cumæan Sibyl,' this time referred to in the text without abuse. The public, by the way, should not lose the present opportunity of viewing this fine work and the 'Young Marsyas' at Mr. Vedder's gallery, No. 39 Union Square.—Mr. Frederick Martin's 'Statesman's Year-book' for 1880 promptly takes its place in the invaluable series to which it belongs, with the customary alterations to date.—We have so recently reviewed Dr. Maudsley's 'Pathology of Mind' that we need say no more of the new edition just published by D. Appleton & Co. than that it is in many respects the best general book on insanity in any language. It is a pity that we have not in this country in that branch of the profession some men of Dr. Maudsley's intellectual calibre. The Messrs. Appleton, by the way, have just removed to their new quarters at Nos. 1, 3, and 5 Bond Street.—Harper & Bros. have in press Dr. Henry M. Dexter's 'Congregationalism of the Last 300 Years,' with its invaluable Bibliographical Appendix.—S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, will shortly publish 'Preadamites; or, a Demonstration of the Existence of Men before Adam,' by Prof. Alexander Winchell, of the University of Michigan.—A 'History of the Cincinnati Society of ex-Army and Navy Officers' (Cincinnati: Peter G. Thomson) is a handsome pamphlet of two hundred pages. It contains an account of the formation of the society, full reports of its proceedings, and a brief statement of the military history of all its members. It may be as well to state that it has no connection whatsoever with the Society of the Cincinnati formed at the close of the Revolutionary War, and that its name is owing simply to its locality.—The history of the Smithsonian Institution is continued in the thick volume of 'Journals of the Board of Regents, etc.,' and the pamphlet 'Scientific Writings of James Smithson,' edited by Mr. W. J. Rhees, chief clerk of the Institution. As in the former volume of 'Documents,' the indexing is a curiosity. Here is an example, ludicrous in itself, and containing two errors—of fact and of alphabetic arrangement: "Angelo, Michael, personification of 'Thought' by a soldier, 298"; "Thought, personification of, by Thorwaldsen, 298." A medallion portrait and other illustrations accompany Smithson's scientific papers.—Five 'Circulars of Information' of the Bureau of Education for 1879 relate to training-schools for nurses and of cookery, proceedings of the National Education Association, etc. The Bureau gives notice of the annual prize of the King of Belgium, which, for the ensuing year, will

be awarded "to the best work on the means of improving ports established on low and sandy coasts like those of Belgium." The prize is \$5,000. Manuscript or printed works must be sent to the Minister of the Interior at Brussels before January 1, 1881.—Bulletin No. 3 of the U. S. Entomological Commission is Dr. C. V. Riley's Report on the Cotton Worm, pp. 144, with numerous woodcuts and one full-page colored illustration. On pp. 68-74 Dr. Hagen's yeast-fungus remedy is unfavorably criticised.—The Minnesota Historical Society will celebrate the two-hundredth anniversary of the discovery of the Falls of St. Anthony on July 3, 1880, on the University Campus at Minneapolis.—Mr. L. W. Schmidt, who has lately removed to No. 7 Barclay Street, has received the catalogue of the remarkable library of the Comte Octave de Béthague, to be sold at No. 5, Rue Druot, during the fortnight beginning March 8. It embraces nearly 2,000 numbers. The bindings are of great value, more than five hundred having been executed by the late Trautz-Bauzonnet, a complete list of whose mosaic bindings from 1838 to 1878 is appended to the preface to the Catalogue.—Prof. A. Gazier, we learn from *Polybiblion*, has printed the hitherto unpublished letters to the Abbé Grégoire from correspondents whom he had consulted for particulars about the various patois of France (Paris: Pedone-Lauriel).

—Our readers are acquainted with the result of last year's competition for the prizes offered by the proprietors of the *Sanitary Engineer* and others for the best four plans for workingmen's tenements. A similar series of prizes, since offered for the best designs for large city schools, has resulted in nearly as active competition. Over one hundred plans were exhibited last week at the Academy of Design. The conditions imposed were hard of fulfilment; and although the verdict of the committee is not published, it may yet be anticipated that no thoroughly satisfactory answer will have been rendered to the problem—how to provide airy and well-lighted rooms for a school of eight hundred children on a city lot of one hundred feet square, enclosed on three sides by four-story buildings. An inspection of the plans shows that no one allows more than about one hundred and thirty cubic feet of air-space for a scholar. We need not say that this is entirely inadequate for a "model" school. The architect is, of course, not to blame for this deficiency under the circumstances. The question of securing sufficient light is a peculiarly difficult one, and has been met with much ingenuity in a variety of ways. There are a number of other points of great interest—as the arrangements for heating and ventilating, the security against fire, the convenience for school work, and the latrines; but the most difficult problem by far is the introduction of sufficient light. The offerers of the prizes will have conferred a great service if they succeed in impressing the public with the disadvantage at which the most intelligent school architects have to work in this city.

—The February *Macmillan* has an account of the Zulu nation and the recent war, taken down from the lips of Cetwayo himself by Captain Poole, R.A., who has charge of the august prisoner. It does not turn out to be a sensation, and we doubt if the enterprising *North American Review*, which some time ago had an article from the pen of Chief Joseph, is at all jealous. As history it contains very little of value, much of it being already well enough known and the remainder rather rambling. The editor also observes with great justice that it is "in some respects one-sided." The Zulus have no idea of chronology, and Cetwayo complicates this difficulty by proving himself, as we judge from sundry interpolated notes, a great liar. Moreover, though the Zulu annals are the reverse of peaceful, they are in the highest degree monotonous, and Chaka, the founder of the nation, seems to have been the only remarkable man it has produced. As a literary curiosity, however, Cetwayo's story has an interest, and suggests the valuable additions to literature and the general information we should now possess if there had been enterprising magazines long enough ago to afford defeated barbarian lions an opportunity of painting the picture themselves. The "commentaries" of Ariovistus or Arminius, say, would make an interesting series of articles.

—The first number of the new series of *Unsere Zeit* contains an article by H. B. Oppenheim on the history of the parties now represented in the German Parliament—groups, for the most part, so vaguely defined as to make the details of German politics extremely confusing to the foreign observer. The present party system Mr. Oppenheim dates from the formation, in the reactionary period following 1848, of the "German Progress" party. Then was formed, he says, for the first time a liberal party, founded not on general principles, but upon the basis of definite historical precedents, and with practically attainable objects. By call-

ing itself a German party it secured the valuable support of those outside of Prussia who hoped for national unity, and inspired its active members with the enthusiasm engendered by an ideal aim. For a series of years, in spite of repeated dissolutions, this party had a strong majority in the lower house, but even before that brilliant move of Bismarck's which ended in Sadowa it had begun to disintegrate. Those who placed German above Prussian interests wished to come to terms with the Government, for, as they thought, progress towards national unity implied, first of all, harmony between king and people in Prussia. This fraction, headed by Twisten, Von Forekenbeck, Von Unruh, and Lasker, proposed accordingly a compromise with the Government; but, as it was not accepted, the other element won the upper hand, and kept it till, after the Austrian war, the former seceded to start the National-Liberal party. The two bodies were now divided not only with reference to the relative importance of local and national interests, but also with respect to the German policy to be followed; the new party advocating immediate federal union with the non-Prussian states, the old, under Waldeck's lead, the gradual absorption of them.

—It was a fortunate time for separation, because the liberal representatives of the annexed states (Hanover, Hesse, etc.), without denying their liberalism, wished to be on livable terms with the Government; for, on the reorganization of the local authorities, their districts would lose much if they were at odds with it. During the conflict period there had been practically but two parties; now there were three, and there were soon to be more, for, the necessity of union among the Conservatives being gone, their party also disintegrated. The seceders, however, under the name of Free Conservatives (in the Imperial Parliament they are called the *Deutsche Reichspartei*), formed and have maintained a separate organization corresponding to the Right Centre of French politics, as the National-Liberals do to the Left Centre; but they have never acquired anything like the relative strength of the latter. Their intention was to form a kind of parliamentary body-guard around Bismarck, and to swallow Tory prejudices so far as he might think desirable. The leader of this fraction was Count Bethusy-Huc, and it was composed chiefly of the high nobility, especially of Silesia, the great province for entailed estates. From this body have been taken most of the appointees to diplomatic positions, and some middle-class members of it have been made *Fach* (that is, business) ministers, as distinguished from the holders of the portfolios for military, judicial, and foreign affairs. The lesser nobility, however—the *Junkerthum*—remained firm in their adherence to the principle of stand-still in church and state. Both branches of the Right are distinguished from the Right in other parliaments by the fact that they are not allied with the Catholic Church, and hence derive no considerable support from the lowest class. After 1866 the Progressists steadily lost ground, and a new party appeared, which was destined to play a highly important part. This was the so-called Centre, or Catholics, who had obtained but fifteen seats in the Prussian election of 1866, but in 1870 had already increased the number to fifty-nine. For the federal election of the same year the Centre, headed by Windthorst, Reichen-sperger, and Karl von Savigny, issued their platform, advocating state rights and local privileges against centralization, and, “as political, so also ecclesiastical freedom, and the rights of religious bodies against possible encroachments in the way of legislation.” In the same House the other parties were represented respectively in the order in which we have named them by 59, 123, 116, and 55 members. The increased power of the Centre is, to a large extent, attributable to the provision of the federal constitution ordaining manhood suffrage. When this was under discussion, says Mr. Oppenheim, “no one imagined the depths of ignorance, prejudice, superstition, and narrow-mindedness which now are, and for a long time to come will be, so potent a force in many parts of Germany.” And, aside from the efforts of Poles, Danes, Alsations, etc., our author deems the strength of particularism to be still very great. It was this, he says, more than anything else which carried the tariff of 1879.

—It is seldom that a musical composition has attracted so much general attention and interest as Berlioz's “Damnation de Faust,” which was performed for the first time in English on Saturday last. It is difficult to imagine why this beautiful composition has only of late years been publicly performed in the composer's own country, why it is very seldom heard in Germany, and why it has never been brought before an American or English audience until now. That the doors of the Conservatoire de Musique of Paris have remained obstinately closed to Berlioz is no matter of astonishment. The programmes of its concerts are to this day almost exclusively confined to the works of the classical school. Schu-

bert and Mendelssohn have been admitted, Schumann is but rarely heard, and this is the last concession which the solemn and dignified guardians of the public taste in France who rule at the Paris Conservatory have made to the exigencies of modern art. Berlioz's “Faust” cannot fail to produce an immediate and dazzling effect upon the hearer, whether a professional musician or an advanced amateur, or a concert-goer of merely ordinary cultivation. The best qualities of the composer are present in it. A fulness of beautiful melodies, poetical and original ideas, highly dramatic effects, with a brilliant and bold instrumentation and thoroughly artistic form, combine to produce a work of art of the very highest order. Berlioz was inspired by Gérard de Nerval's translation of Goethe's “Faust.” He selected the words himself, and treated the text in his own original and thoroughly independent manner. He looked at the poem only from a musical point of view, omitting and adding whenever he thought he could by this means secure the most powerful musical effect. In the very first scene he leads *Faust* over the plains of Hungary, at early morning, for no other purpose than to introduce the Rákóczy march, which he does with striking power. The short first part opening with *Faust's* melancholy greeting to the coming spring, followed by the bright and joyful strains of the village festival, and concluding with the thrilling phrases of the famous Hungarian march, is, as a whole, the best of the work.

—The second part opens with the first scene of Goethe's drama: *Faust* in his room, restless and disgusted with life, and about to put an end to his misery, when he is interrupted by the solemn harmonies of the Easter hymn breaking in upon the quiet night. *Faust's* monologue moves in the gloomy mysterious key of C sharp minor, which at its climax is changed by a daring and unexpected modulation into the bright and comforting key of F major. After a noisy, strikingly realistic scene among the carousing students in Auerbach's cellar, in which the “Song of the Rat,” followed by a burlesque requiem, and *Mephistopheles'* “Song of the Flea” are the most characteristic features, the demon carries his victim to the banks of the Elbe, to a field of roses, and there, bedded among the blooming flowers, he and his spirits sing the weary *Faust* into sleep and oblivion. Though one may look in vain for fields of roses on the banks of that cold, inhospitable, and most uninteresting river, Berlioz has made of this scene the gem of the whole work. It is impossible to describe the tender grace of this lovely number. After a soft introduction for baritone solo, which was admirably sung by Mr. Remmert, the separate parts of the double chorus come in one after the other until, united and sustained by a most poetical orchestral accompaniment, they swell to a magnificent crescendo and then gradually sink to the softest pianissimo, when the weary sleeper is left to his dreams of peace and happiness. In the third part *Faust* and *Margaret* meet. The duet between the two lovers is also of indescribable beauty of melody and harmony. The fourth part contains a number, “Ride to Hell,” which, for wild and overpowering orchestral effects, is perhaps unequalled in the whole history of music. The following chorus of the pandemonium, celebrating in wild discordant shrieks *Mephistopheles' triumph*, is even terrible. In magnificent and most comforting contrast to the dissonant shouts of the infernal hosts follow the solemn, majestic harmonies of the heavenly choir, receiving and welcoming *Margaret's* spirit to the abode of everlasting happiness. The performance of this immensely difficult work was excellent in almost every respect. The work of the chorus and the orchestra was admirably done, and no praise of Dr. Damrosch's untiring energy and rare skill and intelligence can be too high.

—Mr. Steele Mackaye's new theatre in Twenty-fourth Street was opened week before last to a full house, with a nondescript play of his own called “Hazel Kirke.” The innovations introduced into the theatre itself are numerous. There is above the stage a lofty vault and beneath it a profound abyss, and in this space works up and down an elaborate framework in three stories, each one containing—or capable of containing—a fully set scene. Of course when the curtain is up, and there is a scene before the audience, the other stories are not visible at all, being either above or below the stage, but new scenes can be set in them while the play is going on, and so be ready whenever they are wanted. The object of all this machinery is to avoid long “waits” between the acts, though whether it is worth while to take so much trouble to obviate this objection to the ordinary method may be doubtful. That Mr. Mackaye's device, whatever its value, is a complete success, there can be no question. Everything works smoothly and noiselessly, and the “waits” are as long or as short as it seems advisable to the manager to make them. Another change is that the orchestra, instead of being placed in front of

the foot-lights, is perched up in a small gallery at the centre of the stage-arch. This, in a theatre as small as the Madison Square, is no bad plan, as it gives more room for seats. The floor is given a very steep incline, so that everybody in the house has a clear view of the stage. To all the details of the interior Mr. Mackaye has devoted a great deal of taste and thought, and the result is that the Madison Square Theatre is really worth seeing, if only for the prettiness of the spectacle. The curtain we will not undertake to describe; it was designed by the well-known artist, Mr. Louis C. Tiffany, whose assistance (to judge by the pleasing result) must have been called in for many of the scenic details also. Altogether, Mr. Mackaye is to be congratulated on his venture, but he is not by any means to be congratulated upon "Hazel Kirke." Whether it will run or not we should dislike to undertake to predict, but we trust that it may not, for its success will encourage Mr. Mackaye to believe that he is a dramatist, and this, of course, would encourage him to write other plays. He has a good stock company, and has it in his power to produce well any play that does not require a large stage. The strength of his company is in comedy, though many of his comedians evidently think that their line is tragedy. Miss Ellsler, a new actress to us, is given in "Hazel Kirke" an extremely difficult part, which any young actress might be pardoned for spoiling altogether. To say that she makes it go off at all is almost to call her a genius, and her talent for a certain kind of pathetic acting is very marked. Mr. Dominick Murray has acted Irish melodrama so long that the "brogue" still lingers in his speech, and produces an effect a little inconsistent with the rôle of the fine old English bachelor assigned to him in the play. Mr. Whiffen's *Pittacus Green* is a disappointment, as almost anything must be after Mr. Whiffen's *Sir Joseph Porter*. But the fault lies mainly with the part, which is more often silly and vulgar than it is funny. *Dunstan Kirke*, as the self-willed old farmer (suggested by the obstinate father in "Dora") is well, though somewhat monotonously, played by Mr. Couldock.

—The "Royal Middy," as given at Daly's Theatre, is an American adaptation of the "See-Cadet," recently produced at the Thalia Theatre in the original. The "See-Cadet" is a comic opera of the lightest sort; the libretto being almost bouffe in character, and the music certainly far from profound. The choruses are generally very good, and many of the airs, particularly the mask song and *Don Januario's bolero* in the first act, are pleasing and linger in the memory. But most of the score is not very original, and is music of a sort that might give rise to a dispute as to whether it was or was not commonplace. In the original the libretto and the situations of the plot are the main things. The absurdity is much heightened by the introduction of snatches of French here and there, the contrast with the prevailing German being often very comical. But in the American version all this disappears, and the plot is so altered for propriety's sake that the situations lose half their force. In the original, *Don Lamberto's* relations to *Fanchette*, and the complications arising out of them, are perfectly natural, though they cannot be reconciled with the canons of strict morality. In the American version morality is saved, but reason and probability are both thrown overboard. The singing at Daly's is not by any means what it should be; indeed, very little attempt is made at singing, except in the choruses, which are very well given. The acting is inferior to that at the Thalia some weeks ago. Mr. Alonzo Hatch acts *Don Lamberto* in a way to make the judicious grieve, while Miss Lewis's *Fanchette* is not by any means a success.

—Swiss dredgers last December brought up from the bed of the river Rhone a carved and polished jade *strigil* which at once attracted the attention of savants, from the well known fact that jade is rarely if ever found in Europe. The London *Times* has had a number of letters upon the subject, among others from Prof. Max Müller, who believes the "scraper" to have been "the property of the first discoverers of Europe." He does not deny that such an announcement is enough to make one feel a "little giddy," but he maintains that any justifiable giddiness experienced in reflecting upon it bears small proportion to the giddiness which should be felt in reflecting upon some of the ascertained facts of philology. If one is to be giddy, his argument is, he should think of the portentous circumstance that the numerals are the same in Sanskrit and in English. Of all the numerals from one to ten, moreover, only *saptá* (seven) and *ashtáu* (eight) have the accent on the second syllable in Sanskrit, and the same is true of ancient and even modern Greek. "Any one who can look without a tremor into the depth thus suddenly opened before our eyes" and perceive that we are using the tools of language which came from Asia at the time of the great migration, ought to be able to keep a steady head, he thinks, in the presence of a theory that jade tools used

in the Europe of the Stone Age "were brought from those well-defined areas in Asia where alone jade has been found," leaving America and Oceanica of course out of the question. It is evident that somebody has been ridiculing this theory, since Prof. Max Müller is never so derisive as when deriding the derision he has met with so frequently at the hands of a perverse generation. But it may be pointed out that (we are tempted to add as usual) his argument is in favor of a probability only, and tends to likelihood rather than certainty. In the words of the *Times*, which his letter has thrown into a spasm of awed speculation the like of which would make the fortune of a young editorial writer, he "opens up so many suggestive and profound ideas that the question on the nature and origin of manufactured jade, which was the basis of them all, is in some danger of being buried under the pile of riches of which it has unlocked the doors." The "theory" that jade was once produced in Europe, as it is in Asia, America, and Oceanica, and that it may be rediscovered there, is also, we suggest, one that it demands no excessive giddiness to contemplate; more especially as it is said already to have been found at Potsdam and Schwemsal. It need hardly be added that Prof. Max Müller alludes to these finds as "a few and somewhat apocryphal exceptions," and that it does not occur to him that they may indicate possible finds in future.

SIBREE'S MADAGASCAR.*

MADAGASCAR deserves indeed the first part of the title which the author has given it. The island is a thousand miles long, and has nearly the same area as France, but upon our maps it is dwarfed by its proximity to the neighboring continent. Although it is only three hundred miles away from Africa, it has far less in common with it, either in fauna or flora, than would be supposed. Mr. Alfred Wallace says that it sustains "a similar relation to Africa as the Antilles to tropical America, or New Zealand to Australia, but possessing a much richer fauna than either of these, and in some respects a more remarkable one even than New Zealand." Dr. Selater, in his account of the mammals of Madagascar, concludes, 1st, that Madagascar has never been connected with Africa as it at present exists; 2d, that Madagascar and the Mascarene Islands must have remained for a long period separated from every other part of the globe; 3d, that some connection by land must have existed in former ages between Madagascar and India. From this it will be seen that it is by no means very clear that Madagascar is an *African* Island.

In the present volume, and in an earlier one entitled 'Madagascar and its People,' Mr. Sibree has given a very good popular account of the peculiarities of the fauna of the island, and he has furnished some interesting notes respecting its more curious plants. His style is not wholly free from obscurities; for instance, we are told (p. 88) that one species of yam has an edible root which "attains the size and thickness of a man's leg. The inside is white and has a milky juice; it is soft as a water-melon, but without seeds, and is eaten raw." It is doubtful whether we might not infer from this that some edible roots *do* have seeds. It must be further said that a few of the statements relative to the natural history of the island are unworthy of the author. On page 83, at the close of an attractive account of a species of opuntia, or prickly-pear, we read:

"It is perhaps not superfluous to remark that, except in old trees, there are no proper *branches* in the prickly-pear; all the thick, fleshy leaves grow from the edge of the others, and the flowers and fruit also grow in the same position. They possess great vitality, so that a single leaf laid on the ground soon develops a number of tendril roots, takes hold of the earth, and rapidly increases."

To which it might be rejoined that the foregoing remark is not only superfluous but is wholly misleading. As an exercise for correction by a botanical student it might serve a good purpose, albeit the errors are a little too obvious. What the author calls *leaves* are, in truth, fleshy, flattened branches, bearing other branches still more disguised under the form of spines or thorns.

For the most part the descriptions which the author gives of the animals and plants are accurate and graphic. As an illustration of this the account of the "traveller's tree" may be cited. This is a plant of the banana family, possessing a crown of broad and long leaves arranged in two rows, at the top of the stem, like a fan. In the common banana what appears to be the stem is made up of the bases of the leaves rolled firmly together, but this near relative of the banana has a trunk of soft

* 'The Great African Island. By Rev. James Sibree.' London: Trubner & Co. 1880. 8vo, pp. 372.

wood which frequently attains in crowded forests a height of eighty or ninety feet, although in the swamps it is only ten to twenty feet high. Of this plant the author says:

"In proceeding along the coast we had an opportunity of testing the accuracy of the accounts given of the water procurable from the traveller's tree, about which I had always felt rather sceptical, as somewhat of a 'traveller's tale.' In fact, I had never before seen the tree where plenty of good water was not procurable; but here there was none for several miles except the stagnant water of the lagoons. We found that on piercing with a spear or pointed stick the lower part of one of the leaf-stalks, where they all clasp one over the other, a small stream of water spurted out from which one could drink to the full of good, cool, sweet water. If one of the leaf-stalks was forcibly drawn down, a quantity of water gushed out, so that we afterwards readily filled a large cup with as much as we needed. On examining a section of one of the stalks a hollow channel about a quarter of an inch in diameter is seen running all down the inner side of the stalk from the base of the leaf. This appears to collect the water condensed from the atmosphere by the large, cool surface of the leaf, and conducts it downwards. After three hours' walking along the shore in the heavy sand, with a hot sun overhead, we were glad to draw from these numberless vegetable springs, and thanked the Giver of these living fountains in that thirsty land. We afterwards found that in some villages the people supply themselves constantly from this source."

Mr. Sibree, as we learn from an earlier work, went to Madagascar in 1863 as an architect to superintend the erection of four churches in memory of the martyrs who perished during the terrible persecutions in the island between 1837 and 1857. During a residence there of four years he had an excellent opportunity of becoming acquainted, under favorable circumstances, with the character of all classes of the natives. For this reason the chapters upon the customs, art, folk-lore, and popular superstitions are of exceptional interest. The inhabitants of the island, the Malagasy, closely resemble in many of their ways the Malayo-polynesian peoples, rather than those of Africa. This similarity suggests very startling questions relative to the period when the island first became peopled; and everything bearing upon traditions, habits, and language possesses an importance which Mr. Sibree has fully realized. The islanders have nominally embraced Christianity, and their rude customs are happily giving way; but a study of these and kindred ethnological subjects must be made now or never. At the capital of the island, Antananarivo, an annual is published, to serve as a repository of information respecting topics of anthropological interest, and for three years this periodical was under the charge of the author of the present volume. This fact is mentioned to show the zeal with which Mr. Sibree has undertaken his task. The volume closes with a fair and very interesting statement of the progress of missionary operations in the island. By a series of political changes the Hovas, the most intelligent and energetic of its numerous tribes, have gradually obtained the supremacy over all the rest:

"The policy of the present Government has in many points been greatly in advance of that of all preceding ones. In their anxiety for education, in the repression of the traffic in intoxicating drink, in the upholding of the Sabbath, and in the amelioration of cruel customs and laws and warlike usages, they deserve the praise of all; and in what they do to extend Christianity, although they do not always see the possible difficulties this may involve, the personal influence of the highest personages in the state has been exerted from the best motives and from a deep and sincere interest in the extension of the Gospel. Civilized and Christianized, a great future lies before Madagascar; and as it has become famous for the faith and devotion of many of its sons and daughters, so also, from its commercial importance, its inexhaustible fertility, and the mental capabilities of its people, it will eventually take an important and honorable place among the nations of the world."

MRS. DELANY'S CORRESPONDENCE.*

"If all the world were prudent and regular," wrote Mrs. Delany in 1742, "it would not be half so diverting as it is now." The world certainly was anything but prudent or regular in her day, and she certainly found it very entertaining. She lived in a society where deans and virtuous ladies read 'Roderick Random' aloud in country-houses; where at dinner-parties they had plum-pudding and roast-veal for the first course, creamed apple-tart and collared pig for the second, and no dessert; where little girls were taught, as their first lesson in deportment, to "bridle" on entering a room—that is, to hold up the head and draw the chin back; where fine ladies amused themselves with making grottoes of shells in their gardens, or with "sugar-plum knotting" in-doors; where people took as cough-medicine two or three snails boiled in barley-water; where a queen at her coronation was not ashamed to wear, in addition to

her own jewels, all that she could borrow of the court ladies and all that she could hire of the Jews and jewellers. It was a time of gorgeous magnificence and of brutal grossness. For instance, Mrs. Delany writes thus to her sister in 1750:

"The present talk of the town is of an affair between Lord Hervey and Lord Cobham. Lord Hervey was at a drum of Lady Cobham's; he held his hat under his arm, the inside upwards; Lord Cobham laid a wager with Mr. Nugent of a crown that he would spit in Lord Hervey's hat, and did, asking Lord Hervey's pardon for doing it, and telling him the reason, upon which, with the utmost composure, Lord Hervey offered him his hat to win as many crowns as he pleased, but next morning sent Lord Cobham a challenge" (i. 365-6).

If such were the manners of gentlemen, it can hardly be supposed that their lackeys behaved better. Mrs. Ann Granville writes in 1737 of an "affair of importance" which consists in "the footmen being turned out of the playhouse; they have a strong party of ladies on their side; they were very impertinent, but the gentlemen were to blame also." It seems that these footmen were excluded from a certain gallery where they had congregated, in Drury Lane Theatre; and they collected with sticks and other weapons to fight their way into the stage-door. The Prince and Princess of Wales and others of the royal family were present, and great alarm prevailed; but the riot was not suppressed until twenty-five or more persons had been severely wounded (i. 155).

Mrs. Delany spent much of her life in Ireland. Perhaps nothing that she tells is so amusing as Lady Morgan's descriptions of the gay society of her youth, where a leading man of fashion in Dublin used to enter drawing-rooms by turning a somerset, in full dress, at the door; but Mrs. Delany's tales are wonderful enough. She informs us, for instance, that after the Lord Lieutenant's banquets, as the guests withdrew, the doors of the castle were always flung open, and the mob from the streets swept in to carry away every remaining fragment. The wife of the Bishop of Clogher, going to a dinner-party in her own sedan-chair, soon found both her bearers to be too intoxicated to proceed farther, and had to borrow a "hackney-chair" and finish her journey. More serious illustrations of the condition of that unhappy country were the narratives of young heiresses who had been forcibly abducted and married by villains, just as is described in Froude's 'History of Ireland.'

There is a delightful letter from Dean Swift to Mrs. Delany, then Mrs. Pendarves. He tells her with magnificent gallantry that when he "received the honor and happiness" of her letter he was suffering under both giddiness and deafness, but he did not "value" his deafness for three days, because her letter was his "constant entertainment during that time." He writes to her: "A pernicious heresy prevails here among the men, that it is the duty of your sex to be fools in every article but what is merely domestic; and, to do the ladies justice, there are very few of them without a good share of that heresy, except upon one article, that they have as little regard for family business as for the improvement of their minds." But to this sweeping charge he makes his fair correspondent a triumphant exception. "I know you never laugh at a jest before you understand it, and I much question whether you understand a fan or have so good a fancy at silks as others" (i. 135). These letters leave, on the whole, a very agreeable impression of the gifted and wayward Dean; and there is a good postscript in a letter to him from Lord Carteret who says: "P. S. When people ask me how I governed Ireland, I say that I pleased Dr. Swift" (i. 157).

Mrs. Delany's career included nearly a century of English history, from 1700 onward; and she passed through the social and public life of a frivolous period, being herself not only without stain, but a perpetual example of high aims, varied cultivation, and refined virtue. Of her wit and wisdom these letters everywhere give proof; they show her a devoted friend and the faithful wife of an adoring husband. She had tastes and knowledge far beyond those of the ordinary Englishwomen of her time; she studied eagerly the habits of animals and plants; she arranged a drama for an oratorio of Handel, the theme being taken from 'Paradise Lost'; she painted in oils, and on one occasion, being detained by weather at an inn, persuaded a sign-painter to let her do his work for him, and left the sign of "The Swan" behind her. She was a guest at gorgeous houses, and when she journeyed from Bulstrode with the Duchess of Portland they had four coaches-and-six, with twelve horsemen attending, besides "apothecaries, bakers, butchers" that joined in the procession to escort them part of the way. Yet she was utterly simple and unspoiled, and Edmund Burke said of her: "She is not only the woman of fashion in her own age, she is the highest-bred woman in the world, and the woman of fashion in all ages." She has been hitherto best

* The Autobiography and Correspondence of Mrs. Delany. Revised from Lady Llanover's edition, and edited by Sarah Channcey Woolsey. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

known to American readers through the 'Diary' of Madame d'Arblay; and it is pleasant to hear that the editor of these volumes, Miss Woolsey, is about to make a similar abridgment of that very amusing book.

LATE STUDIES OF ORIENTAL CYLINDERS.*

IT is time that a more careful and scientific study were made of the little seal cylinders of which there are hundreds scattered about in the public and private collections of Europe and America. They are an inch or two long, half or three-quarters of an inch in diameter, pierced the length of the axis so as to allow them to be held by a string, and the surface is covered with mythological or other figures, often with the name of the owner added. Made of various hard stones, they are well-nigh imperishable, and as every gentleman in the older and later Babylonian empires, in the great Assyrian empire, and in those of Armenia, Susa, and Persia, carried one on his wrist or about his neck, it is not strange that hundreds even have been discovered whose inscriptions cover a period of more than two thousand years. They are valuable for the study of history, palæography, art, and mythology, but they have for the most part hitherto been looked upon as curious puzzles or as the toys of a museum.

The published material for their study is considerable, but very imperfect. Cullimore's 'Oriental Cylinders' (London, 1842) is a collection of 174 figures, without a word of description or conjecture, as at that time, indeed, conjecture would have been worthless. Lajard's 'Culte de Mithra' (Paris, 1849) contains a larger and finer collection, thrown together, like Cullimore's, with no understanding of the nationality, even, of the cylinders, and made to serve the purpose of a baseless notion of the worship with which they were imagined to be connected. Passing by numerous earlier and later works, in which one or two are figured, the next collection of any importance is Ménant's 'Catalogue' of the cylinders in the Royal Cabinet of Medals at the Hague, which contains thirty-five photographs of cylinders, besides seals of the cone form, which are far less interesting. Apart from scattered notices here and there, the only considerable studies of these cylinders are by Lenormant in various portions of his 'Essai de Commentaire des Fragments Cosmogoniques de Bérosee,' and by Ménant in the works cited below. We may say here that Ménant is still pursuing this study, and that he desires to obtain impressions of cylinders owned in America. Any such sent to this office we will undertake to forward to him.

So much is now known of the Assyrian language that the translation of the inscriptions on the cylinders generally offers few difficulties. Even in the Armenian and Susian cylinders, the language of which still baffles translation, it is easy to read the name of the owner. The commonest form of inscription is in three lines and generally of one type, as in the following: "(1) Hisimilasu, (2) Son of Butur-Sin, (3) Worshipper of the God Martu." These inscriptions thus give no clue to the explanation of the accompanying figures, there being no evidence that even the god worshipped by the owner is more likely to be engraved. It is a peculiarity of Ménant's interpretation of these figures that he is very chary of allowing them to be gods. He accepts George Smith's identification with Izdubar and Heabani of the hero with side curls and the man-and-bull monster that fight together against wild beasts; and he calls the seated male figure Belus, and the nude female figure with crossed arms Beltis; but the other figures he generally regards as human. It is, however, difficult to conceive why the Chaldeans should have covered their seals with "priests," "pontiffs," "sacrificers," and "initiators" in preference to the gods to whom these officials were devoted. A notable case is that of perhaps the commonest of these figures, which Ménant calls a priest, probably because its hands are lifted in an attitude which might be adoration. But this figure, which appears fifty times in Cullimore's, Lajard's, and Ménant's collections, is always beardless, and presumably female rather than a eunuch. It wears a long flounced dress, never found on a standing male figure, with a flying loop in the coiffure behind the head (cf. Cull. 'Oriental Cylinders,' Fig. 106, where it appears in connection with another having a similar flounced dress and coiffure, unmistakably feminine; also Fig. 90, where four female figures, not Chaldean, have a similar headdress; and again the headdress of the female figures in the remarkable seal found by Schliemann and described in his 'Mycenæ,' p. 354). Another mark of distinction is the peaked hat, rarely if ever found

on a bearded figure, but found on indisputably female figures, as in the goddess armed with the long-handled scimitar, generally worn by Bel Merodach, in 'Culte de Mithra,' xxxvi. 1. It can hardly be doubtful that this beardless "priest" is really a goddess, as a figure in precisely the same dress, but with a front view, represented in Cullimore's 'Oriental Cylinders,' Fig. 56, as resting on two lions, is identified by one of the inscriptions which speaks of "Ishtar on the lions," who is the Ishtar of battle, while the more common figure is most probably the Ishtar of love, and her attitude is hardly that of adoration but of invitation.

There is on the cylinders a quite common group, consisting of a seated male figure, to whom a standing figure, often with the horns of a god attached to his headdress, is leading a humbler figure held by the hand. These Ménant calls Belus, the *initiateur* and the *initié*. But it would seem that this sitting figure can hardly be Belus, as it has sometimes the emblem of streams falling from the shoulders, which it would seem must belong to Hea, the god of the ocean and the under-world. If this be so the two other figures would probably represent a soul being brought to the King of Hades for judgment. The figures of a "warrior" and a "sacrificer," as they are called by Ménant, seem to us to be almost certainly those of gods.

It must be confessed that Ménant throws considerable doubt on the accepted explanation of a somewhat famous cylinder (given in George Smith's 'Chaldean Account of Genesis,' p. 91), which represents a male and a female figure, one on each side of a tree whose fruit they are about to pluck, while behind the woman is an erect serpent. Smith, the younger Delitzsch, and Baudissin agree that this must represent a Chaldean legend of the fall of man, but there are other cylinders of the same general type which invalidate this explanation; although since the discovery of the tablets containing the story of the Deluge we need not be surprised to dig up a Chaldean version of any of the stories which precede it. A remarkable cylinder in the possession of Professor S. Wells Williams, of New Haven, seems to confirm the current explanation, as it takes up the story after the fall, and represents the serpent—not the ordinary dragon or griffin—as now being pursued and punished by Bel Merodach.

Much study yet remains to be given to these cylinders before they can be fully understood. Their hundred or two figures of gods, men, heavenly bodies, and symbolic objects can be but slowly identified and explained. It seems already certain what a few of the chief figures are, and also that the inscriptions, of which Ménant has here satisfactorily translated a goodly number, can give us no help in identifying the figures of the gods. As a general thing the engraver seems indiscriminately to have put on two or three favorite figures, each in its conventional attitude, and after engraving the name of the owner and his filiation, with the name of the god to whom he was devoted, to have filled up the field with such minor objects as there remained room for. With our increasing knowledge of the Babylonian pantheon we may expect to be able soon to understand these extremely interesting figures much better than at present. We may notice that in these, as in other of Ménant's works, there are some annoying typographical errors. Thus, in the "Catalogue" we notice that on p. 23 the reference to "Cullimore, Pl. 20" should be Pl. 17, and on p. 59 "Cullimore No. 17" should be No. 7.

RECENT NOVELS.*

THE *Saturday Review* says in a recent number that the literature of the present day consists mainly of ephemeral novels or of forms of journalism—"reporter's work in disguise." 'Under the Tricolor' is an unhappy combination of both: nine parts of "reportage" to one of novel. The one part of novel is made up of the commonplace moralizings of the Paris correspondent of an American newspaper, a middle-aged, unattractive, and impecunious woman, who lives in a well-known Franco-American boarding-house, and acts as confidential manager of an improbable love-passage between two young dwellers in the same *pension*. The real object of the book is to give a sketch of the members of the American Colony; they pass before us thinly disguised under pseudonyms. First come the "low Americans" of Mme. Magne's boarding-house, utterly unable to appreciate any life beyond that of their homes, with their bad French, their love of bargains at the *Bon Marché*, and their provoking persistence in teasing the Legation for tickets of admission and for redress when they are overreached in shops. Then we have the widow with small means and a mysterious past; the mother and one daughter, so often seen abroad, whose man remains at home, or is missing altogether;

* 'Catalogue des Cylindres Orientaux du Cabinet Royal des Médailles à la Haye. Par Joachim Ménant.' La Haye: Imprimerie de l'Etat. 1878.

* 'Les Cylindres Orientaux du Cabinet Royal des Médailles de la Haye. Par Joachim Ménant.' (Dans les *Archives des Missions*.) 1878.

* Notice sur quelques Cylindres Orientaux. Par Joachim Ménant. Paris. 1878.

* 'Under the Tricolor; or, The American Colony in Paris. A Novel. By Lucy Hamilton Hooper.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

and two young women who have come to Paris for culture in various directions—one "with as much voice as a mouse in a cheese," who insists upon being a prima donna, and another who has entered "Vinoy's class of young men to draw from the nude living model, while the unkempt Bohemians were laughing and jesting about her."

We are then taken to the quarter of the *Arc de Triomphe* and shown the American nobility, "mortified at the fact that they were born under the stars and stripes," "the only foreigners in Paris who are ashamed of their nationality." They adore fashion, and rank, and title, and try their best to live near the rose if they cannot quite be it—even turning Catholic sometimes to win this social heaven. Why not? As Henry IV. said: "Paris vaut bien une messe." Another method—but more expensive—is to buy vicomtes and barons as husbands for their daughters. Some of them, however, prefer to adopt English manners and talk, and to prostrate themselves at the feet of English swells; this class is increasing. An interesting matter for observation is the position of this aristocratic American colony, as Mrs. Hooper describes it, encamped on the outskirts of French fashionable society, gazing longingly upon a promised land into which they cannot hope to enter, despised by the people they most admire and despising each other. We should mention that among these lost sheep who have erred and strayed from their country and their country's ways, Mrs. Hooper has found two ladies "who are still truly and nobly American," and who have not been injured by transplanting. "The finer growths," she tells us, "do not change their nature with the soil. Potatoes vary in quality and flavor with the earth in which they are planted and the skies beneath which they grow, but the diamond remains unaltered and unalterable whether washed by the waters of an African river or blazing on the bosom of a northern queen." What an admirable subject the American Colony might be for a good hand Mr. James has shown us in his most recent sketches. Mrs. Hooper's long residence abroad has given her the opportunity to collect good material, but in this book it is wasted, and the taint of the reporter clings to it. Mrs. Hooper is not a close or discriminating observer; she lacks imagination, and the literary gift has been denied to her.

The American publishers are promptly in the field with the first part of Zola's 'Nana,' which we believe is still running in the *Voltaire*. Nana is, readers of 'L'Assommoir' will remember, the child of Coupeau and Gervaise, and takes early to the pavement. At the opening of 'Nana' she appears on the stage at the Varieties Theatre as "the Blonde Venus," and captivates all Paris that is dissipated and disreputable, and even that frequent visitor, the Prince of Wales, to whom the book must be singularly interesting reading, we should say. At the end of this volume she is at the summit of her vogue; the next will probably take her down the decline. So far 'Nana' is indisputably M. Zola's worst book. Curiously enough, the impression that it must leave upon every reader, whether blasé or inexperienced, is that it is unreal and amateurish. This is unfortunate, for M. Zola has certainly never chosen a theme better capable of illustrating his great theory that there is no sunshine anywhere in life, and it cannot fail to be disappointing to so distinguished a moralist to make so slight an impression with so potent a subject. Compared with the conviction conveyed in such a sentence as "He knows not that the dead are there, and that her guests are in the depths of hell," 'Nana' seems trivial. There are some "facts of life" which can be estimated quite accurately without experience of them, and it might be objected to this book that the misery of the life of a "Nana" is one; but it is a sufficient objection to it that, judged by M. Zola's own standard, it fails in verisimilitude.

Few writers of novels who have so distinct a call to their profession as Mr. Julian Hawthorne are so uneven in their execution. In taking up a new book by him we are in doubt whether we are to be delighted by the fulfilled promise of 'Bressant' and of 'Garth,' or whether we are to be annoyed with the grotesque unreality of 'Idolatry.' We are prepared for the one state or the other, since Mr. Hawthorne's genius is untempered by the critical faculty or by any sense of humor; but we are unprepared to find in the author of 'Saxon Studies' defects that hint at a want of perception and betray a lack of general observation. Sebastian Strome is the son of a country parson, after the type of the good bishop in 'Les Misérables.' While studying for his father's calling he becomes the victim of sceptical doubts, and, feeling strangled by the bands he is about to assume, his liberty and his reason lay violent hands on all the moralities; he lives fast, gambles, betrays the maid of the young lady to whom he is afterwards engaged, entices her to London, and deserts her. This, we

believe, is an entirely new complication in the history of the novel; Sebastian's taste is throughout deplorable, however, and is, if anything, inferior to his morality. He is suddenly called home to find the girl he had ruined fatally injured by a passing railway-train, together with his father, who had endeavored to save her, and himself left with a little daughter, whom he may recognize or not, as he chooses. His heart, it happens, has remained sound at the core by virtue of the sceptical pickle in which it has been immersed; he feels that he needs punishment, and proceeds to administer it in his own fashion. He first confesses to his fiancée, and though she wants to forgive him he refuses to accept her sacrifice, declaring he can never have loved her; in which statement he is much mistaken. Having performed this duty, he returns to London, sells his effects, and retires to the slums with his baby to maintain her by honest toil at wood-carving. The lady, meantime, who may be described as of the strapping order of heroines, marries out of pique a genuine villain, and not a sceptical simulacrum of one. Having reason to reflect, she is on the point of murdering her husband in a fit of emotional insanity when he suddenly dies unassisted. (Previous to this, we should mention, he has accidentally killed Sebastian's baby.) She is under suspicion, however, when Sebastian emerges from his retreat, converted from scepticism, accepts a Government position that is all ready for him, goes to the Crimea, finds a witness who can prove Mary's innocence, and the book closes with an intimation that the two lovers have got back to where they started from, and will marry and be happy. This is not the kind of thing many people who read 'Bressant' ten years ago thought Mr. Hawthorne would be doing ten years afterwards.

'A Strange Disappearance' has the incontestable merit of being interesting, though it is absurd enough in certain particulars, and has nothing to do with the people and events that belong to this world. It is a detective story, of the sort that Mr. Collins is fond of, and, being by a lady, excites some surprise that its machinery should be so well managed. The mystery, which involves the marriage of one of the wealthiest and proudest citizens of New York and the daughter of a low German burglar, her subsequent disappearance, and the attempts of the police to find her without knowing anything of her history, is disclosed little by little, and we find clues and lose them again in just the way needed to keep our attention. 'A Strange Disappearance,' in other words, is one of those novels which once beginning you read through, and then lay aside with a feeling of wasted time.

The Indian Mutiny is now so far removed from us in time that a tale like 'The Serpent-Charmer,' relating the fortunes of a Franco-Indian family involved in it, seems almost to belong to the domain of historical fiction. The book, the plot of which appears to be founded on fact, is rather a boy's book than a novel, and is filled with an uninterrupted series of wild adventures told in an agreeable and interesting way. Many European households at isolated stations in India were placed at the outbreak of the revolt in the position of the Bourquien family, though few of them came through the terrible interregnum of anarchy, rapine, and slaughter as well. We have often wondered why Indian adventure and life have not been more utilized by English producers of fiction. The returned nabob and civil-servant and half-pay officer are familiar characters to all novel-readers. They necessarily figure, however, in European scenes. But the life of these familiar types as it went on in India, in their first stage of existence, is nearly a sealed book to us. So, too, is native Indian life. Here and there some rash intruder, like Mr. Wilkie Collins in his 'Moonstone,' has endeavored to lift the veil from the latter and shown us a wild melodrama of Oriental passion and religion which he has labelled India, though he might perhaps as well have called it China or Assam. The explanation of this is probably two-fold. The novel-producer, English and American, knows little or nothing of Indian life, and the class which is directly interested in it is so restricted and so little literary that it has never given rise to a school of fiction of its own. As a field for juvenile fiction India presents many advantages. It is a country remote, little known, picturesque, and mysterious; peopled with strange and interesting figures; an ancient, splendid, but conquered civilization, existing side by side with that of the invading and restless European. It is a theatre of adventure, danger, heroism, and crime—of everything which is exciting to the adolescent imagination. Precisely how much M. Louis Rousselet really knows about India we do not undertake to say; but he knows, at least, a good deal about boys, and that they

'Nana. From the French of Emile Zola. Translated by John Stirling.' Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Co.

'Sebastian Strome. By Julian Hawthorne.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1880.

'A Strange Disappearance. By Anna Katharine Green.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1880.

'The Serpent Charmer. By Louis Rousselet. Translated from the French by Mary de Hauteville.' With 68 engravings on wood by A. Marie. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

like a hearty meal of pillage and carnage, and are not easily surfeited with stories of snakes and alligators, and with this he has provided them in 'The Serpent-Charmer.'

Cyprus. As I Saw It in 1879. By Sir Samuel White Baker. (New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879.)—The interest in Cyprus awakened by the English occupation bids fair to be satisfied, if the making of books about that island can accomplish it. Among the many that have been published Sir Samuel Baker's will probably be the most popular, for the results of personal inspection, directed by the most trustworthy sources of information obtainable, are given in his natural and easy style, so that the most lazily disposed are entertainingly provided with an amount of knowledge that is, in general, to be had only by the study of statistics and the expenditure of much time. The narrative, probably constructed from a diary of each day's journey, is agreeably diversified by incidents of a personal nature which, however, are not allowed to encroach upon the main purpose of showing Cyprus as it stands, its needs present and future, and the difficulties attending its government and development under the terms exacted by the Porte. The first year's occupation, although disastrous to the agricultural interests from drought, has shown the revenue to be easily collectable, but the surplus, which the treaty gives to the Porte, has been calculated on the Turkish basis that all necessary expenses of government are included in the salaries of the various orders of tax-collectors, needed public works of all kinds having been entirely neglected under Turkish misrule. It would be singular if England should long contentedly accept the position of tax-collector to the Sultan, even if the office be rendered less irksome by the secret knowledge of having gained some ulterior object by the occupation; she certainly does not require the sense of being a very ill-paid official to awaken her to the crying wants of the people whose care she has assumed. There is a pressing need of money for the development of every native industry, and the capital that would naturally flow into the island is frightened away by the uncertain tenure of the English, whose withdrawal, though based on the unlikely contingency of Russia's removal from Kars, Batum, and Ardahan, may still take place, it is supposed. The hands of the Government are tied, the people, until relieved, being unable to bear farther taxation; and a revision of the taxes as a method of relief must be undertaken with extreme caution to avoid a painful deficit in the revenue.

The wine trade, which has been rigorously taxed—almost to its destruction—on account of Turkish prejudice, could, by encouragement, be made to take its proper place as the principal industry of the island. At present the wine-grower struggles under different forms of taxation, aggravated by ruinous delays inflicted by dishonest tax-farmers; there is a first tax of two per cent. on the value of the land, a tax of one-tenth on the grapes, which must be appraised before the crop can be gathered, and ten per cent. ad valorem on the wine made. Then, before the wine can be taken to Limasol for sale, a permit for the removal of a stated quantity must be obtained, and at Limasol it must be again weighed to see that the permit has not been exceeded, an excess being punished by a fine double the amount of the whole tax. The transportation is in goat-skin bags made impervious with tar, and the journey under a broiling sun seriously debases its quality, as does also the unnecessary but required delay at Limasol before it is allowed to be sold. The only relief which the Government has yet been able to afford is the abolition of the tax-farming. The construction through the roadless wine-district of narrow roads, so that the wine can be transported in barrels from the grower to the merchant, is urgently advised by Sir Samuel Baker. The improvement in quality would at once make the tax less onerous. A wide military road already constructed at too great expense is, he says, unsuited to the habits of the people, besides having no branches into the wine-district. Until cheap roads are made the wine will taste of tar and goat-skin, and the laden mule and his driver will clamber around and over the English highway seeking shorter cuts to their destination.

A still greater necessity is a system of irrigation. It should be modelled on a simple plan, suitable to the simple character of the people, and such an one is entirely practicable; the dreary plain of Messaria is underlaid at the depth of five or six feet with the water needed by the perishing crops. If the Government, which can borrow money at four per cent., will advance loans at six per cent. for the construction of water-wheels, the crops would be assured, and Sir Samuel Baker is convinced that the first year's crops would repay the loan. The subject of a water-supply for the towns and villages should be placed in the hands of competent engineers, but with an emphatic caution against elaborate and expensive

methods; in a place where the half-starved cattle prefer to die while they wait for the grass to grow rather than to wax fat on English prepared cattle-feed, no caution in introducing improvements, one would say, could be too great. But the numerous remains of ancient aqueducts show that, though the disappearance of the forests may have affected the rain-fall, Cyprus has always had to depend upon artificial works for her water-supply. A renewal of the forests with stringent and enforced forest laws, the compulsory planting, by proprietors, of trees of fruit-producing varieties, which have been greatly neglected, would ensure great profit. In fine, England has acquired a property which with great economy of administration will yield after a time a large revenue, and, perhaps, equal the sanguine expectations of the first speculators who hurried to the island only to hasten away yet more rapidly.

But before that time there are plenty of disappointments in store for the Government. The crown lands, which have been confidently predicted to be of great agricultural value, have been encroached upon with the connivance of fraudulent officials, so that proving titles will involve endless litigation; when the occupation took place there were forty thousand unsigned fraudulent title-deeds, for example. It is a mistake to suppose there is any considerable quantity of cultivable land unused; and though there may be undeveloped mineral wealth, there are no obvious indications of it. Besides the works necessary for the progress of the people, others more costly are needed to render Cyprus the strong strategical position which was the reason for its occupation. The arsenal and harbor of Famagosta should be restored, the Pedias river enclosed in a narrow bed to increase the velocity of the current, and so prevent the formation of malarious marshes at the mouth; and farther expensive engineering works will be required to carry the silt beyond the harbor and prevent the growth of an impassable bar. Other harbors at Kerynia on the north coast, at Karavastasi in Morphu Bay on the west, and at Limasol and Larnaka on the south require various improvements differing in expense. The climate, with due precaution against encampment in malarious districts and the avoidance of the central region in summer, when the mean temperature is 72° and the maximum 115°, will not be found unhealthful, though the sufferings of the army which came provided with copper warming pans and cast-iron coal-boxes (could anything be more characteristically national than that?) have spread an impression to the contrary which Sir Samuel Baker considers extremely unfortunate. The book as a whole leaves a very distinct impression upon the reader's mind of just what Cyprus is, and what its reasonable prospects are, and it is unnecessary to say, we suppose, that the author has abundantly proved his trustworthiness heretofore. It does, however, need a map, and the reader will find it to his advantage to obtain one for himself and use it in connection with the volume.

The Cradle of the Confederacy; or, the Times of Troup, Quitman, and Yancey. A Sketch of Southwestern Political History from the Formation of the Federal Government to A.D. 1861. By Joseph Hodgson, of Mobile. (Mobile: 1876. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.)—The Northern public has, we believe, in spite of the date on the title-page, only just begun to have an opportunity of making the acquaintance of this work. It will be found by the patient reader to be a valuable contribution to the history of the doctrine of secession, and perhaps the only one in which the fate of the Whig party in Alabama and the successful efforts of Wm. L. Yancey to force his adopted State and the rest of the South out of the Union—efforts persevered in for many years—are set forth with so much detail and with so much candor. Mr. Hodgson seems divided between his admiration for Yancey and his sense of the folly of the idea that secession could be peaceable; and apparently was one of the Conservative Whigs who were reluctant to consider Lincoln's election a sufficient grievance to justify withdrawal, and who were stung into acquiescence in the ordinance of secession by Yancey's taunting them as Tories, and intimating that they would yet be hung for treason. In still another particular this book is an important source of information: a great deal of attention is bestowed on the complications of Georgia with the Cherokees and of Alabama with the Creeks in ousting them from their reservations—a crime which was expiated at Mission Ridge, and which is here made interesting by a discussion of the Constitutional issues raised between the States and the Federal Government over a conflict of jurisdiction, from Washington to Jackson. In a discursive and disorderly way, indeed, Mr. Hodgson may be said to show the two-fold strain upon our form of government of the anomalous condition on the one hand of the aborigines, on the other of the blacks, under the Constitution. The two

causes were united in Northern Georgia and Alabama, for the objection of these States to civilizing and adopting the Indian was that, according to Governor Troup, "the utmost of rights and privileges which public opinion would concede him would be a middle station between the white man and the negro slave"; and "there was no place for him intermediate between the slave and his master."

It is instructive to observe that in all this Indian controversy, as in the attempt to make slaveholding safe in any part of the Union, the term "right," so freely and so ardently used, had a purely abstract significance. The existence of a moral sentiment at the North was a standing puzzle to the South, and was so thoroughly disbelieved in that even Mr. Hodgson talks of the editor of the *Liberator* as a "British subject" and "agent of Exeter Hall," and reports George Thompson as "repeating in conversations that 'every slaveholder should have his throat cut.'" So when Roger A. Pryor, opposing a resolution in favor of reopening the slave-trade, at a Southern commercial convention held in Montgomery, May 10, 1858, had said: "This proposition, if endorsed, would shock the moral sentiment of Christendom," Mr. Yancey replied: "The gentleman from Virginia refers to the opinions of Christendom upon this subject—they are rather the opinions of devildom."

As far as it goes, the book points to the genuine simplicity of those fire-eaters who, while professing their readiness to sacrifice their lives in behalf of State sovereignty (and sometimes the lives of their fellow-slaveholders, as when Yancey tells Brownlow he hopes some day to bayonet him), expected the North to be cowed and to yield peaceably to the inevitable. One anecdote is offered in evidence: "General Clanton was accustomed to tell how when, a few months later than the election, a cavalry regiment of militia of which he was a field-officer was offered to President Davis, the reply was that the Confederacy would not need cavalry, that it would be an infantry war, and that a few regiments of infantry would be sufficient." Mr. Yancey, however, had long before

worked out a plan of campaign, which he wrote of as "a well-considered Southern policy—a policy which has been digested and understood and approved by some of the ablest men in Virginia," and in which the Border States were to remain in the Union at first, and save the Southern Confederacy from having "a long abolition, hostile border to watch," besides interposing a barrier to armed suppression of the disunion movement.

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